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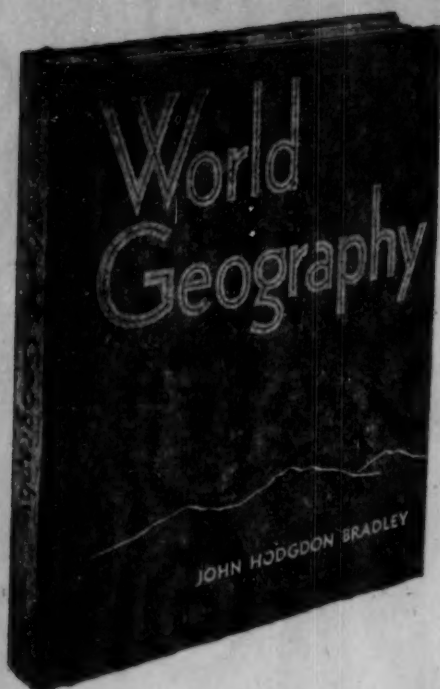
VOLUME XII

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FEBRUARY, 1948

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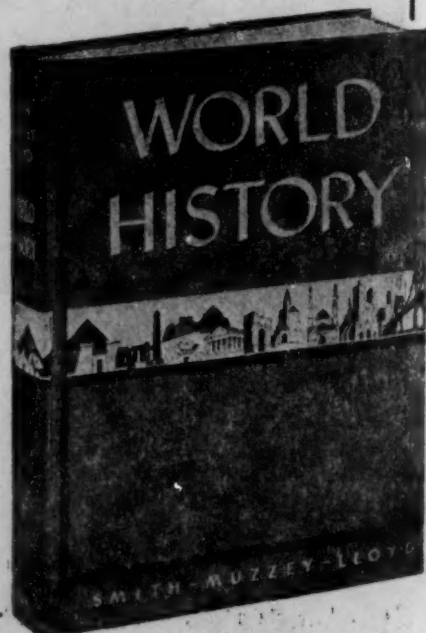
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SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Editor's Page

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FACES THE FUTURE

WE, THE social studies teachers of the United States, aspire to common objectives. We struggle with common problems. We try to help each other to move forward and upward to a higher level of human endeavor. We are united through our aspirations, our problems, and our efforts to advance. We are a community in the sense of shared interests.

By emphasizing the process of communication, we discover the secret of vital community activity. Without the continuous interchange of ideas, intellectual growth becomes difficult if not impossible. This is why we must have a professional journal. A journal is not an end in itself. It is a means to an end.

HOW can we more effectively share our interests to the end that as individuals and as a group we may exert a larger measure of influence in this period of crisis and revolution?

Awareness of significant developments in the social studies. It may be assumed that all of us wish to be aware of the significant developments in the social studies taking place in the schools and colleges of the United States. The problems of content, method, organization, and evaluation are a continuing concern of all teachers at every grade level. But how can overburdened classroom teachers keep in touch with the latest developments?

We know of no better source of information than the pages of *Social Education*. We hasten to add that this is not an advertisement. Rather, it is a pointed reminder that, to our knowledge, the editorial office claims no powers of omniscience or omnipresence. Indeed, the Council has never been able to afford to pay for more than a small part of the time of its editor. The answer is obvious. Each of us has a personal responsibility to share with others his knowledge of significant social studies developments currently taking place in his or other areas of the country. To the extent

that we as individuals clear these developments through the central office of our organization, to that extent our journal will serve as an effective means of communication and professional growth.

Awareness of new interpretations in the social sciences. It may also be assumed that all of us wish to keep abreast of the latest interpretations in the fields of history, geography, political science, economics, sociology, anthropology, and psychology. We need scholarly articles, broadly interpretative in nature. To deny us this information is to deny to the youth of America an indispensable part of their heritage.

There are scholars, it is reported, who look with some misgivings upon the classroom instructors in the public and private schools and in the junior colleges and teacher-training institutions. May we remind them, if such there are, that the average classroom teacher carries a heavy burden of varied courses and extra-curricular activities, a burden remote indeed from the experience of the university scholar who has the opportunity to work in a highly specialized area. Each group has its own problems. The problems are different in kind, but the burdens are equally heavy.

If instruction in the social studies is to be improved, condescension must be replaced by understanding, and understanding must be coupled with a pressing sense of responsibility. From whom is the classroom teacher to get these newer interpretations if not from the scholars? And by what magical channels is this information to reach the classroom teachers if the scholars cannot spare the time to do the necessary writing?

A TELEPHONE switchboard would be a meaningless instrument if persons did not use it to communicate with each other. A professional journal is in the same category. It is ready and waiting to open the channels of communication. Let us remember that the problem of growth is a shared responsibility, and let us make increasingly effective use of the instrument we have at hand.

LEWIS PAUL TODD

MUST SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS BE OPTIMISTS?

A Reply to Joseph E. Gerson

SOCIAL studies teachers are becoming alarmed about the growing pessimism that has seized the American people and is reflected in the attitudes of the student body of our secondary schools," writes Joseph E. Gerson on the Editor's page of *Social Education* (November, 1947). Teachers are not directly responsible for this wave of pessimism, Mr. Gerson admits, but they are indirectly to blame because "they should have helped to create an optimism anchored in reality rather than one based upon pious hopes." The latter type of optimism, the writer intimates, very often turns into an embittered and despairing pessimism.

We are very much in agreement with those who hold that there is no place in social studies education for the deliberate and conscious inculcation of a pessimistic outlook. Such teaching adds to the fears, anxieties, and insecurity of students, without, at the same time, contributing anything to the solution of crucial and threatening problems.

On the other hand, we do not believe that there is any place for optimistic teaching. If we could clearly and easily distinguish between optimism "anchored in reality" and optimism "based upon pious hopes," we would gladly choose the former, and rejoice that we are on the side of the angels. But, unfortunately, these are question-begging terms. In the last analysis, the only conclusive test is that of hindsight. By the same after-the-event analysis, moreover, it is just as tenable to speak of pessimism "anchored in reality" and pessimism "grounded in unreasonable fears." History abounds in examples of all four cases. If the Treaty of Versailles had succeeded in bringing peace and stability to the world, it could be said that those who had been overwhelmingly enthusiastic about Wilson's proposals had shown an optimism "anchored in reality." Since the peace

failed, theirs must necessarily have been an optimism "based upon pious hopes"; and the pessimists could retrospectively claim that *their* position had been "anchored in reality." The same kind of hindsight reasoning, at a later date, will be applicable to Soviet-American relations, the British Labor Government, the United Nations, and the Marshall Plan.

To indicate how subjective and inconclusive these terms are, we turn to one of Mr. Gerson's own proposals for dealing with the great political impasse of today. He says, "First, let us decide what kind of a world we want. That will supply us with a standard with which to measure the significance of world events." He undoubtedly considers that such a judgment can be optimistic but "anchored in reality." We would say it is "based upon pious hopes." From the days of the pyramids, and earlier, it has been precisely such questions over which thoughtful, honest, and intelligent men—to say nothing of knaves and fools—have contended.

What seems very implicit in the type of analysis made by those who try to distinguish between reasonable and unreasonable optimism is a conscious effort to justify—rationalize, we would say—optimistic indoctrination. The problem is avoided rather than solved by a verbalistic approach.

Since optimism and pessimism are relative and emotional terms, incapable of any precise meaning, we do not believe there is place for either of them in the social studies. If conscious pessimism can lead to unhappiness, cynicism, and despair, conscious optimism can foster disillusionment, and also lead to unhappiness, cynicism, and despair.

AS WE see it, there is no valid reason why social studies teachers must be optimists or pessimists. It is not their job to read their hopes or fears into their teaching, nor is it their job to act as propagandists for what they regard to be the desirable or the inevitable. (We do not intend to enter into an analysis of the questionable value of propaganda in promoting democratic education. We have discussed that subject elsewhere.)¹

Teachers must neither frighten students into feeling that war with Russia is certain, nor must they indoctrinate them with the belief that the United Nations will solve all problems, and that

For a recent issue of *Social Education*, Joseph E. Gerson prepared an editorial under the title of "Pessimism and the Teaching of International Understanding." The following pages contain a reply by William Isaacs (Christopher Columbus High School, New York) and Jules Kolodny (Samuel J. Tilden High School, New York, and the School of Education of New York University), followed by additional comments from Mr. Gerson.

¹ William Isaacs and Jules Kolodny, "Can Propaganda promote Democratic Education?" *High Points*, September, 1947.

there is nothing to worry about. Either approach can be fatal to good morale and clear thinking because *nobody knows* the answers to these questions. To date, individual fears and hopes have *not* proved a major factor in the conduct of international politics.

TEACHERS can perform their greatest service by presenting students with as complete and adequate a picture of the social scene as the known facts and available data will permit. They must teach students to look for all the facts, analyze all possible interpretations, evaluate, and draw their own conclusions about the probable outcome of the interplay of world forces. It is this type of analysis that distinguishes the conclusions of the social studies from those of astrology. The classroom must be a market place where ideas compatible with the democratic hypothesis compete for acceptance. It is this kind of activity that gives cogency to social studies teaching.

Teachers can further aid by giving historical insights and a historical perspective on the basis of which students can make their analyses. War and peace are by no means new problems. And it was not an idle thought that impelled Sean O'Casey's leading character, "Captain" Jack Boyle, to remark in *Juno and the Paycock* that "Th' whole worl's in a terrible state o' chassis!"

Teachers must also show a warmth, an enthusiasm, an earnestness, and a liveliness in the manner in which all problems are presented for discussion. If they express their own opinions, they should carefully label them as such, and point out that in the realm of opinion their own judgments do not possess any special or unique validity. But they must not deliberately give their teaching either an optimistic or a pessimistic slant. If the outcome of discussion and analysis leads students to an undue optimism or pessimism which future events do not bear out, it may indeed be unfortunate. But these are the risks of living; they are not peculiar to social studies education.

THE social studies have a long way to go before they can attain the objectivity and predictability of the physical sciences. The first great step, as many educators have pointed out time and again, is the application of the scientific method to social thinking. This means, among other things, that conclusions must be appraised and evaluated in the light of all available evidence by principles of reflective thinking. Value judgments that can neither be proved nor dis-

proved must be ruled out. Concepts such as optimism and pessimism must be eliminated from the vocabulary and the minds of all social studies teachers. This kind of *critical realism*, in our opinion, can make the social studies most meaningful and effective.

WILLIAM ISAACS
JULES KOLODNY

JOSEPH E. GERSON COMMENTS

WHEREIN does the position taken by Mr. Isaacs and Mr. Kolodny differ from the position presented in the article they criticize? We are in agreement that pertinent facts should be neither over-looked nor over-simplified; we are in agreement that "conscious optimism can foster disillusionment, and also lead to unhappiness, cynicism, and despair"; we are in agreement that the teacher must know the facts and have the integrity to present the facts.

The basic difference appears to be the role that value judgments are to play in social studies teaching. "... conclusions must be appraised and evaluated by principles of reflective thinking. Value judgments that can neither be proved nor disproved must be ruled out," write Mr. Isaacs and Mr. Kolodny. The debate concerning the place of science and the place of philosophy in the formulation of educational policy and practice cannot be treated at length here. However, are not the establishment of public education, and the inclusion of social studies in the curriculum, the organization of courses of study within the social studies, and the establishment of objectives of the social studies all the results of value judgments? Is not the belief that "teachers can perform their greatest service by presenting students with as complete and adequate a picture of the social scene as the known facts and available data will permit" a value judgment which is not universally accepted? Without reference to some value judgment, what is the meaning of any collection of facts; without reference to some value judgment, what is there to reflect about; without reference to some ideal, what is the basis for the critical realism that "can make social education most meaningful and effective"?

But are Mr. Isaacs and Mr. Kolodny as opposed to value judgments as they state? They write: "The classroom must be a market place where ideas compatible with the democratic hypothesis compete for acceptance." Is not the democratic hypothesis itself a value judgment, a standard by which we judge the compatibility of the ideas

that are to compete for acceptance? Is not one of the tenets of the democratic hypothesis the optimistic belief that man, given the facts and believing in democratic principles (having value judgments), can solve his worldly problems? Should not social studies teachers have and inculcate this optimistic faith in man?

THE social studies teacher need not believe that reform is inevitable nor that reform will be immediate, but he must believe that reform

is possible; in that sense he must be an optimist. From the days of the pyramids, and earlier, it has been precisely because thoughtful and intelligent men have had ideals that progress has been made. When we no longer have ideals there will be no basis for evaluating the real. Neither will there be progress. We shall have only fortuitous drift.

JOSEPH E. GERSON

*New Dorp High School
Staten Island, N.Y.*

TYLER KEPNER

THE profession of social studies teaching suffered a tragic loss when Tyler Kepner died suddenly on December 9. Characteristically, in spite of illness and discomfort, he had met with his high-school American history class only a few hours before. His untimely passing, at the age of 49, left his fellow-teachers and the citizens of Brookline, Massachusetts, with a keen realization that the place he had earned in their esteem and regard could not be filled by another.

Through the too brief but almost feverishly active period of his professional career he pursued his high personal goals as if the days were all too short to accomplish what must be done. He went to Brookline as a history teacher in 1923, and had served since 1927 as Director of Social Studies for all grades of the Brookline public school system. He had bachelor's and master's degrees from Harvard; taught summers in four different teacher-training institutions; wrote countless magazine articles and reports; served, always conscientiously, on more committees than he could remember; was president at one time of the New England History Teaching Association; shared largely in the writing of four American history textbooks which won wide recognition.

But the great contribution that Tyler Kepner made to his profession was the example that he set. He expected much of his fellow-teachers and students, but in return he never gave less than his best. He was a man of conviction. He had stalwart faith in American institutions, in the common man, in the processes of democracy. His mind was always open, receptive to fresh evidence and to new points of view. Modest and retiring, he was rarely seen outside New England or his native Pennsylvania. He could hardly have suspected that his influence for better history teaching would spread to every corner of the country he loved, and even—through the Spanish translation of one of his textbooks—throughout Latin America. Always attentive to the needs and aspirations of others, Tyler Kepner was a good neighbor, loyal friend, and superb teacher.

"Can the United Nations Succeed Where the League of Nations Failed?"

Frederick Arnold Middlebush

CAN the United Nations succeed where the League of Nations failed as an organization for maintaining world peace? This is, I believe, the most crucial question in the field of international relations confronting us today. Every individual American, whether he realizes it or not, has a very considerable stake in the answer.

World War II marked the downfall of the League of Nations, although its fatal weakness as an instrument for preserving peace had been apparent from the beginning. World War II afforded the democracies an opportunity to prove that they were not decadent and that liberty was still a worthy cause for which men could fight. But even more important for the future, in our victory we have won another tomorrow. We have won a second opportunity to work with the other nations of the world at the task of building an international order based on justice, respect for law, the dignity of the individual, and a civilized way of living together. We have now made another attempt to draft a pattern of a world organization to secure peace and the betterment of mankind. How successful we shall be in accomplishing these objectives the future alone will reveal.

WEAKNESSES OF THE LEAGUE

THE League of Nations, as many of us will recall, came into being in a great state of emotional ferment following World War I. There were many, in and out of public office, who believed that with the establishment of the League the means had been found for solving virtually any type of problem that might arise in the field of international relations. And thus they did the

League a disservice by claiming too much for it. There were also the skeptics who held the opinion that, no matter how elaborate the peace-preserving machinery, wars were inevitable and no scheme of world organization could prevent their recurrence. There was, in addition, the die-hard opposition that stood out against the establishment of any formal international organization for maintaining peace, largely on the basis that, to be really successful, such a scheme on the one hand involved too great commitments in the field of foreign relations, and, on the other hand, too great a sacrifice of national rights and freedom of national action. It was largely this third group in our country that succeeded in keeping the United States out of the League.

The subsequent history of the League of Nations showed how little we really had to fear on the score of a too powerful world organization. There was always a wide margin of difference between what the idealists hoped could be accomplished by the League in maintaining world peace and the certain performance that could be delivered in any international crisis.

IN 1919, when the covenant of the League of Nations was being drafted in Paris, the issue was early drawn between those realists who sought to build into the League the idea of the preponderance of the Great Powers that could act decisively and the small states who sought a more universal League founded upon the principle of state equality. The advocates of the preponderant rights of the Great Powers based their case on the hard fact that the ultimate success of the League would depend upon the support given to it by the major powers. The League, they argued, could not function without such support, and this situation, however unpalatable it might be to the small states, should frankly be recognized. Moreover, it was maintained that the major powers must always bear the heavy responsibility for implementing League action, and that they must, therefore, be accorded in the Covenant, a position commensurate with their

This stimulating analysis of the major problems of world organization, and of the strengths and weaknesses of the United Nations, was presented at a general meeting of the members of the National Council for the Social Studies in St. Louis. Dr. Middlebush is president of the University of Missouri.

place in world affairs. The Covenant as finally adopted, however, was a victory for the smaller states. Although the sovereign equality of states was not expressly mentioned in the document, it was embodied in the unanimity rule that gave to every state, large or small, an absolute veto over virtually all affirmative action by the League. This meant, in effect, that the League, from the outset, partook more of the nature of a consultative body than that of an international governmental organization with certain and sufficient coercive powers through the exercise of which wars could actually be prevented.

It was apparent as the League proceeded to deal with acute international problems that the more emphasis was placed upon the universality of the League, the less opportunity there was of securing an organization endowed with coercive powers. As late as 1936 the League Committee of twenty-eight members, appointed for the purpose of studying the League's shortcomings, pointed out that the more a League concentrated on cooperative endeavors and the less it emphasized coercive obligations, the greater would be its membership and the nearer it would approach universality. The Committee also pointed out that such a development would result in a consultative organization, not in an effective agency for the prevention of wars, and that a choice of objectives would have to be made. It is interesting to note that of the governments to whom the report was submitted for examination and comment, the majority of those replying insisted that until the League was more nearly universal in its membership "it could not and should not be coercive"; therefore, coercive provisions in the Covenant should be eliminated. The force of this argument had been clearly brought out in the history of the League's experience with the application of sanctions, particularly economic sanctions. The member states soon became aware of the hazards of applying economic sanctions against a covenant-breaking state with even a single nation, such as the United States, outside the League and therefore in an unpredictable position. The minority, however, insisted upon clinging to the limited coercive security that had been obtained, asserting that a security League was preferable to a universal League.

DURING the earlier years of its history the League, in dealing with disputes between minor powers, secured results of some importance, such as the Aaland Islands' dispute, and

the border controversy between Greece and Bulgaria. The League was then looked upon by some as "the boldest international organization the World had ever seen." But, in the words of a more objective critic, the League was "... apparently just strong enough to coerce, in case of need, a Power the size of Yugoslavia, but a little too weak to tackle Poland."¹

ONE would be less than fair in his judgment, however, if he took the position that, historically viewed, the League of Nations was a total failure, a waste of time and effort on the part of the members. The League's main contribution is not to be found in the international conflicts of major importance that it prevented from developing into a state of war. It is doubtful whether one can make a good case for the League as a successful peace-preserving instrument on the ground that it succeeded in settling peacefully a number of such disputes which, if allowed to go unsettled, might well have caused a major conflict.

The chief value of the League, bitter and tragic as the experience may have been, is to be found in the lesson it has afforded mankind in world organization. Our Federal Union, based upon the Constitution, was not the work of that brief period in American history during which the United States Constitution was being drafted. Our experience under the Articles of Confederation forms an important part of the historical background of the Constitution and the creation of the Federal Union—a plan of organization under which our nation became a reality and subsequently a great power.

AS IN the case of the nation-state, so too in the international field, our experience with the League proved that a regime of law and order, upon which all security rests, cannot be had without *effective organization*. And this organization must be rooted in *law* and must not be simply political in character. Moreover, to be able to get the job done, it must possess genuine authority. As Professor Brierly has said, the League embodied a real attempt "to provide the society of states with Machiavelli's two foundations of good government, 'good laws and good arms.'" But "good arms," according to Machiavelli, must come first, and "the League did not

¹ Henry N. Brailsford, *Olives of Endless Age* (New York: Harper and Bros., 1928), p. 431.

succeed in providing them."² Therein lay one of its major weaknesses. The Covenant clearly laid down as a first and basic principle that war is always a matter of general concern. It attempted further to single out those wars that were particularly inexcusable and in which a reasonable settlement should be reached. Member states pledged themselves, first, not to enter such wars, and secondly, to take certain prescribed "sanctions" for the purpose of restraining the state that broke the Covenant by resorting to such wars. *But there was no way of compelling the member states to honour these obligations, as each state could decide for itself whether a state had "resorted to war in disregard of its covenants."* No organ of the League and no majority of members could make a binding decision on this question. Furthermore, it was possible under the Covenant for a state to go to war without breaking any of its obligations, and thereby to escape through the so-called "gaps" in the Covenant.

To say, therefore, that the League Plan failed is hardly accurate. It would be more nearly correct to say that the League Covenant failed to provide effective machinery for maintaining peace. In times of major crises the procedure to be followed rested primarily upon individual affirmative action. The League could achieve, in such cases, peaceful settlement only if the parties to the dispute did not choose to use force.

THE UNITED NATIONS

LET us turn now to the United Nations, the Charter of which undoubtedly represents the greatest common measure of agreement available at the time it was drafted—and it must be remembered that it was drafted during and not after the conclusion of hostilities. It would seem that the authors of the Charter hoped to secure more certain agreement while the material world was being brought down in ruins and the peoples of the world needed no exhortation to appreciate fully the horrors of war.

The authors of the Charter, in approaching the problem of building a security organization showed that they had not yet learned the whole lesson taught by the experience with the League of Nations. They were determined that the new organization, consistent with the realities of power, should give legal and practical recognition to the preponderance of the Great Powers. At the same time the small states were placed in a

position where they could not prevent the organization from taking effective collective measures "for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace, and for the suppression of acts of aggression or other breaches of the peace." The declared purposes of the United Nations leave little to be desired by the most ardent advocate of an international regime of law and order. They are: "(1) To maintain international peace and security . . . ; (2) To develop friendly relations among nations . . . and to take other appropriate measures to strengthen universal peace . . . ; (3) To achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion; and (4) To be a center for harmonizing the actions of nations in the attainment of these common ends."

IN THE attainment of these ends the Organization and its members are bound to act in accordance with certain principles. The very first of these is basic. 1. *The United Nations is not a super-state but a confederation of states under which the independence and freedom of each state is limited only by legal obligations it has assumed under the Charter.* 2. The members obligate themselves to fulfill, in good faith, the obligations they have assumed under the Charter. 3. The Organization is not permitted to interfere in matters of domestic jurisdiction, although there is no provision for judicial determination of what constitutes essentially a domestic question. 4. All members are bound to settle their disputes by peaceful means and to refrain, in their mutual relations, from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or independence of any state. It will be recalled that, in the case of the Kellogg Pact, war was renounced as an instrument of national policy. This action was founded upon the conviction that modern warfare had become completely uncontrollable and unpredictable in its actual operation and effects. In our highly complex and closely integrated society such an instrument could not be allowed to be used by any power, great or small. How true all this has proved to be, and yet how futile has been the *mere declaration* that there shall be no more wars. The member states of the United Nations have also renounced war as an instrument of national policy and they are prohibited from resorting to force as a means of

² James L. Brierly, *Outlook for International Law* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1945), p. 164.

settling their disputes with one another. In order to enforce this prohibition on the use of force, all members are bound to contribute to measures for collective security through the obligation to render the United Nations every assistance in any action taken in accordance with the Charter, and to refrain from aiding a state against which coercive measures are being taken.

The Charter rests a preponderance of power in the Security Council and considerably less in the Assembly, when that body is compared with its counterpart in the League.

"In order to insure prompt and effective action by the United Nations," so runs Article 24 of the Charter, "its Members confer on the Security Council primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security, and agree that in carrying out its duties under this responsibility the Security Council acts on their behalf." The Security Council, in carrying out the above described duties, is bound to act in accordance with the purposes and principles of the United Nations. And the members of the United Nations, on their part, "agree to accept and carry out the decisions of the Security Council in accordance with the present Charter" (Art. 25).

IN CERTAIN respects it would thus appear that the Charter marks an important step in progress towards the establishment of a genuine world government with power when compared with the League Covenant. The delegation, to

the Security Council, of broad jurisdictional powers and authority to make critically important decisions that are legally binding on the members of the United Nations, makes it appear that the Council can act with decisive force and that the historic concepts of national sovereignty and state equality, which have heretofore severely limited such decisive action, have been sharply restricted. But one must not lose sight of the fact that these limitations operate against all except the Great Powers, where the right to veto, in cases of proposed resort to the action provisions of the Charter, is reserved to each of these five states. One must conclude, therefore, that in the final analysis, and with complete recognition of certain basic differences in organization, the United Nations is no more capable of dealing definitively with problems that endanger world peace than was its predecessor, the League of Nations.

Certain gains have been made that may subsequently prove helpful in developing a more effective instrument for the maintenance of international peace. But one would be blind to the realities of international relations of today if he concluded that the present organization is *adequate* for the fulfillment of the task assigned. It may well be that it represents the greatest measures of agreement presently available, but no "Maginot Line" could be more misleading as a means of ultimate defense than the conclusion that we have now made effective provision, on the international level, for securing world peace.

Behind the black portent of the new atomic age lies a hope which, seized upon with faith, can work our salvation. If we fail, then we have damned every man to be the slave of fear. Let us not deceive ourselves: We must elect World Peace or World Destruction.

Science has torn from nature a secret so vast in its potentialities that our minds cower from the terror it creates. Yet terror is not enough to inhibit the use of the atomic bomb. The terror created by weapons has never stopped man from employing them. For each new weapon a defense has been produced, in time. But now we face a condition in which adequate defense does not exist.

Science, which gave us this dread power, shows that it *can* be made a giant help to humanity, but science does *not* show us how to prevent its baleful use. So we have been appointed to obviate that peril by finding a meeting of the minds and the hearts of our peoples. Only in the will of mankind lies the answer. . . .

In our success lies the promise of a new life, freed from the heart-stopping fears that now beset the world. The beginning of victory for the great ideals for which millions have bled and died lies in building a workable plan. Now we approach fulfillment of the aspirations of mankind. At the end of the road lies the fairer, better, surer life we crave and mean to have. . . .

There is a famine throughout the world today. It starves men's bodies. But there is a greater famine—the hunger of men's spirit. That starvation can be cured by the conquest of fear, and the substitution of hope, from which springs faith—faith in each other, faith that we want to work together toward salvation, and determination that those who threaten the peace and safety shall be punished (*United States Atomic Energy Proposals*, Department of State, Publication 2560, Pp. 1-2).

Whose Fault Is It?

Clara V. Braymer

WHY do pupils develop personality-behavior problems? Before we try to answer that question, it might be well to ask another to which the first is directly related. Who are the pupils in school today? As Al Smith would say, "Let us look at the record." In 1900, only 11 per cent of American children 11 to 17 years of age were attending high school. In 1943, the number had increased to 73 per cent. What significance do these statistics have for teachers? Today we are teaching all the children of all the people. They differ in intelligence, talents, skills, interests, emotions, backgrounds, and physical characteristics. Emerson wrote, "Nature never rhymes her children, nor makes two men alike." The problem of individual differences is not new; it is the demand to do something about it that is new.

While out for a stroll through the country, a visitor met and entered into conversation with a man pruning trees on a small fruit farm in the hills. The tree pruner was educated, gentlemanly, confident.

"Why do you prune trees?" the visitor asked. "It seems to me that one of your education would be able to do something bigger, something more important."

"My friend," answered the tree-pruner, "a tree has to be educated to produce fruit that is marketable. And this education cannot be done by a bungler. I went through an agricultural college to learn this business of pruning. Pruning is not merely sawing; it is sawing scientifically. In the twentieth century even the lowly horticulturist must know chemistry, botany, psychology, and mathematics to succeed well."

Similarly, in the twentieth century even the lowly social studies teacher must know history,

To the admonition, "Know thyself," the successful teacher must couple the admonition, "Know thy pupils." In this article Miss Braymer, a social studies teacher in the Central High School at Trenton, New Jersey, demonstrates that it is just as important to understand the students as it is to understand the materials of instruction. This paper was presented at the St. Louis convention.

government, economics, geography, sociology, psychology, psychiatry, and methodology to succeed well.

THE PUPIL AS AN EDUCATIONAL PATIENT

PUPILS show symptoms of ailments in their educational life as truly as do individuals in their physical life. What are some of the ailments which cause pupils to react to the social studies in the way they do? First, a large number of pupils in high school cannot read the printed page with understanding.

Second, much in a social studies program that pupils are asked to study is so far removed from their life experiences that it lacks vitality and reality to them. Learning thus becomes largely a memory process without understanding. The poor reader is doubly handicapped, for he neither understands nor remembers what he reads. He finds himself entangled in a net of meaningless words. The pupil who reads words without understanding soon loses interest, becomes discouraged, and gives up. He is then branded as slow, or stupid, or lazy.

Third, pupils with a language handicap react to learning in different ways. Some become timid and hesitate to say what they feel they know because they lack the words with which to express their ideas fluently. In a class discussion on the rights and responsibilities of citizens, the phrase "balanced citizenship" was used. The period closed before a satisfactory explanation was made. A boy of foreign parentage with a severe language handicap stopped at my desk and said, "I think I know what balanced citizenship means. When my father wants us boys to do something and we don't want to, he says: 'what kind of boys are you—boys with one long arm to get everything and one short arm to give nothing? Is that the kind of boys you are?' Isn't that what it means?" I asked him why he didn't tell it in the class period. He said, "Oh, I couldn't say it very well." But he wanted me to know that he thought he knew what "balanced citizenship" meant.

Pupils are sensitive about making mistakes before their classmates. To some it is a personal matter. It is a factor which causes them to think they are different from their classmates. Their at-

titude toward themselves is a negative one. Speaking and reading are two things they cannot do. Then they are confronted with the greatest problem of all—a feeling of inferiority. In an interview with a boy who had been transferred to my class in Problems in Democracy, he interpreted his failure as follows: "In the other room they were smarter. They could express their ideas better than I could. I knew it, but I couldn't say it as well as the others. So I never said anything and I failed. Here I feel at home. Everybody is the same."

Some pupils find their language problems so difficult they become discouraged. Their disabilities seem to overbalance their abilities. Alone they cannot effect a balance and they give up. Other pupils react to language difficulties with an attitude of indifference. They reason that they are not going to need to read or speak in the kind of work they are going to do, so they make no attempt to learn to read and write.

Fourth, learning is not purely an intellectual exercise to all pupils. Their feelings enter largely into the process of learning. If they *like* a subject, they generally do well in it. Their emotional reactions rather than their intellectual capacities are often the determining factors that bring them to success or failure in school work. A pupil says, "I don't *feel* like doing it." This forthright statement is an emotional reaction to the assigned work. The task has stirred up in him a feeling against it and he reacts in a natural manner—he day-dreams, he pretends to work, he watches the clock, he expresses a bored attitude. Whatever the cause, feelings dominate and mental functions cease.

"I tried hard," says the conscientious pupil. When a pupil feels he has tried hard enough and yet fails in terms of marks, discouragement takes its toll.

Fifth, the vocationally minded pupil is frequently resentful in his attitude toward an academic subject. A boy in the Industrial Arts curriculum had failed in the Problems in Democracy course. When he was transferred to my group, he asked, "How can I use this *stuff* in my work? I am going to be a mechanic." He was filled with resentment and rebellion.

Boys and girls like those I have been discussing must be treated as patients. They are handicapped. For various reasons they come to the classroom without the necessary language skills. They do not understand why they are there or what they have to gain by being there. Exposed to unfair competition, they become discouraged,

often embittered, and develop attitudes that make learning difficult if not impossible.

THE TEACHER AS AN EDUCATIONAL M.D.

HOW shall social studies teachers deal with such personality-behavior problems? The old oracle said, "All things have two handles. Beware of the wrong one."

The right handle to the door of successful learning must be recognized by the teacher before the pupil can enter through that door. The teacher must realize that personality-behavior problems are indicators of maladjustment. The teacher must know that it is his responsibility to find and remove the causes for such maladjustment.

True, there is no royal road to learning. It is, however, just as true that the road to learning need not be filled with cobblestones so large as to prevent pupils from traveling that road with pleasure, safety, and profit. Right attitudes are the products of purpose and understanding. Pupil attitudes for the most part will be right when the learning situations are right. "We waste much labor," wrote the British educator, L. P. Jacks, "by offering a type of education in which the teacher's interest has been over-consulted and the learner's interest not consulted enough."

USE OF AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

THE traditional textbook method does not meet the needs of all pupils. It often creates vacuums. The pupil may memorize facts. But memorization of facts does not necessarily mean that he has understanding and can use the facts in thinking. Facts as they are presented in the textbook are too far removed from anything the pupil has experienced for him to appreciate their true meaning or their value for him. As a consequence, his study lacks a purpose, and he develops a negative attitude toward study. Someone has said, "It's hard to hit a target you can't see."

A girl not mechanically minded had read in her text the description of the operation of the portcullis and drawbridge in a medieval castle. Later she saw an illustration showing *how* they operated. She drew a sigh of relief and asked, "Is that what the *book* was trying to tell me about?"

Paul Lawrence Dunbar describes the situation of many pupils in a history class when he says

"But it's easy 'nough to titter
W'en de stew is smokin' hot

But hit's mighty hard to giggle
W'en day's nuffin in de pot."

What will the audio-visual approach to the study of history do for the pupil? I shall mention eight ways it can help him.

1. It can stimulate his interest and purpose in study by giving reality to facts.
2. It can help him to see what the world looks like.
3. It can help him to know people.
4. It can help him to appreciate geography.
5. It can present problems of people in a manner that will enable him to understand and appreciate the problems.
6. It can present the facts of history in a manner to aid him in the forming of attitudes.
7. It can give meaning to words.
8. It can give him an appreciation of the past and its meaning for him today.

WHETHER the audio-visual program gives the pupil all it has to offer depends on the selection, organization, and presentation of materials. The visual approach to learning is not merely a seeing exercise, nor is it entertainment. It is a teaching program planned and organized to reach some desired end. Each illustration must tell the pupil something. The pupil must be trained to look for, not at, something.

Good visual teaching depends on good visual planning. The selection of materials determines in large part the success of the program. If it is the opaque projector which is used, each illustration must be chosen for its interpretative value and its significance in the development of the problem. It must be chosen, too, with the pupil himself in mind. The picture, or whatever type of illustrative material used, must possess a meaning that the pupil can grasp. Illustrative material can be as hard to read as books.

A second factor in the selection of illustrative material is interest. The nature of the subject matter of history, for example, presents an interest problem. The pupil is not interested in the past. He is living today. Disinterest, resentment, intolerance are defeatist attitudes. So the choice of materials is based not on what seems interesting and worthwhile to the teacher, but on what will be interesting and worthwhile to the pupil. If a group is particularly negative in its attitude toward the study of history, the use of illustrations of an inspirational type as well as factual is desirable. It is the tactics of the fisherman—to bait, to hook, to land—that the teacher

must learn. Secure the interest first, the thinking second, is a good rule for the selection of visual materials.

READING AIDS

BOOKS must always be a part of instructional materials. A saying of Benjamin Franklin, "Two dry sticks will help burn a green one," if followed, makes a good rule for social studies teachers in their selection of reading materials to meet pupil-reading needs. The story of history and government is not told by the historian alone. It is told by the poet, the journalist, the dramatist, and the novelist. Each tells the story in his own medium. Each can be used as a dry stick to burn a green one.

Because the problem of individual differences is present in every group, the same materials cannot be used with profit by all pupils. Variety is, therefore, a "must" in selecting materials. There is a satisfaction that pupils derive from using different types of informational sources—general texts, pamphlets, magazines, bulletins, newspapers, historical fiction, drama, poetry, and biography. Sustained attention is difficult for the poor reader. Reliance on one textbook not only aggravates that problem, but is apt to add another—lack of effort.

Whatever choices are made, the teacher must evaluate them for their readability and informational value. The philosophy—start where you find the pupil—is sound in relation to selecting materials for the poor reader. It is not desirable, however, to provide him with materials too easy for his grade level. Materials too simple in nature make him feel his limitations and develop another behavior problem—that of inferiority. Too easy materials as truly as too difficult materials defeat success in learning. Except in cases of extreme disabilities, it is better to give the pupil instructional aids to help him in reading more difficult materials.

Because books play such an important part in the social studies, it is necessary for the teacher to help the pupil to gain facility in reading. Through the use of a reading guide the social studies teacher may do five things for students:

1. State the problem for the class so clearly that the pupils can direct their reading toward some purposeful end.
2. Present the problem in outline form, thereby assisting the pupils to organize and develop their ideas.
3. Present the problem against its historical background, thus permitting the pupils to see it in its entirety.
4. Suggest various types of activities to meet individual differences.
5. Suggest various reading references.

CREATIVE EXPRESSION

ALL God's Chillun Got Wings," writes Hughes Mearns, "but all God's Chillun are not permitted to use them." Every pupil has latent abilities in some form that the teacher often fails to uncover.

A pupil who could see no reason for studying American history and problems of democracy, once asked me:

"How can you stand this stuff? It's a pain in the neck to me."

"Is there anything you like very much?" I asked.

"Oh, yes," she answered, "I love to write poetry."

"Why don't you write the ideas you are trying to understand in this class in the form of poetry?"

"That's an idea," she said. "I had never thought of that. I'll bring you one in the morning." This is the poem she wrote:

Industry Speaks

I am the laborer—
I rise before dawn paints the sky
And leave my small close-quartered home
In time to reach the mill nearby.

I am the employer—
I want more profits and more gains
Than any of my competitors,
Regardless of the workers pains.

I am the machine—
I make your clothes and grind your bread,
But when the worker is not here
I cannot function—I am dead.

Whenever boys and girls in their school activities express ideas in a representative manner or in a creative manner, such expression overrides all other forms in securing interest, both for the creator and his fellow-students. Surely the field of social studies is not closed to creative expression. Rather it seems to offer opportunities for many and varied types: drama, cartoons, models, poetry, and art forms.

How can we get pupils to undertake some form of creative expression? Often a single remark by the teacher is enough to stimulate activity: "Wouldn't it be interesting if we had a model of a voting booth?" is the sort of question that sometimes produces surprising results. Often,

as every teacher knows, pupils will respond to the slightest suggestion and bring in cartoons, animated maps, and other products of their own creation. The old pedagogical maxim says, "The learner begins a new interest in connection with an old one." It is the task of the teacher to find the pupil's interest and provide him with an opportunity to use it. Nature plus nurture equals expression. Once this type of expression becomes a part of the program, the feeling of success and the recognition of that success by others aid the pupil in developing a kindly attitude toward the subject.

CONCLUSION

IN CONCLUSION, let me go back to my first question: "Whose fault is it that pupils develop personality-behavior problems?" Inasmuch as the pupil comes into the classroom unequipped with background, experience, and training to change himself, it is the responsibility of the teacher to become the physician and attempt to cure the patient of his ills. Learning is as much a teacher-problem as it is a pupil-problem. "Nothing is taught until something is learned."

The story is told of a small boy who played too noisily while his father tried to read his magazine. In an effort to quiet the lad, the father tore off the last page of the periodical on which there was a map of the world and cut it into bits.

"Here's a puzzle for you. Try and put this map together!" he said.

In a few minutes the father was astonished to find the map perfectly arranged.

"How did you do it so soon?" he asked.

"Oh," said the boy, "on the other side is a picture of a man. I put the man together and the world was all right."

Can we not say that the job of putting the pupil together in such a way that he will not be handicapped with personality-behavior problems is a challenge that the social studies teacher faces in the classroom?

Are We Losing the Peace?

Frederick Mayer

IN MODERN times peace has been waged usually in a half-hearted manner. When peace comes nations are even more unprepared than for the state of hostilities. Even in the United States, which in World War II experienced no economic devastation, the shift to a peacetime economy and peacetime thinking occasioned many difficulties. Most impartial observers agree today that wartime controls were taken off too rapidly, and that no exact plan was made to face realistically the problems of the peacetime world. Far more disastrous has been the lack of adequate leadership. It appears that during wartime, leaders are elected who believe in a better world. But as soon as a condition of normalcy arises, the political nationalists and the conservatives gain dominance.

For the common man in the United States the change from war to peace has been extremely bewildering. Only yesterday he heard that Germany and Japan were the enemies of mankind. Propagandists told him that he should show no mercy to the Axis soldiers who were completely devoid of any moral sentiments. The Japanese especially were pictured as inhuman monsters who delighted in slaughtering innocent civilians and non-combatants. Today, however, the propaganda line has changed completely. Now the Japanese and Germans are both treated as essentially peace-loving nations. It is said that the recovery of Europe and Asia cannot take place without the help of our former enemies. Instead of dwelling upon the barbarity of the Axis nations, the propagandists are speaking about the inhuman ways of the Russian system.

It appears that Machiavelli was definitely right. Humanity has a short memory. Thus, the pious resolutions and the noble intentions of war-time are forgotten amidst the critical problems of the post-war world.

After World War I, the glowing hopes for peace quickly burned to ashes. A professor of humanities at the University of Redlands, Redlands, California, points to some of the reasons for our tragic failure, and discusses a significant problem: Are we repeating our former mistakes?

During the war, while they were fighting a common enemy, a feeling of unity prevailed among the Allies. There may have been distrust and suspicion, as there certainly was between Russia and the United States. But necessity and military strategy demanded that political and economic differences be minimized. Wendell Willkie, who realized that grave and persistent quarrels would break out between the Allies as soon as the war was over, suggested in *One World* that the foundation for the peace should be laid while the nations were actively fighting. The Department of State, on the other hand, took the position that this would be premature, and that all the energies of the Allies should be concentrated on winning the war. Willkie was right, however, for the loss of time occasioned by the delay in establishing the United Nations and framing definite objectives for peace may be fatal for the future of civilization.

Willkie spoke of a "people's peace." What emerges today is not a people's peace, but a militaristic peace. It is a state of exhaustion during which fervent preparations are made for the outbreak of another conflict. The major nations of the world have not yet understood the necessity of bold leadership for peace. The same old, tired men whose blunders were responsible for the last war and the emergence of Hitler are still dominant today. How can they understand the challenge of the atomic age and the necessity for new concepts and techniques in international relations?

PEACE BY DICTATION

IN THEORY, peace is made by representatives of all the victorious nations, which share alike in the fruits of conquest. Actually, peace in Western civilization has usually been dictated by the powerful nations. Thus, in 1918 the future of Europe and of the world was decided by three men—Wilson representing the United States; Lloyd George, the Prime Minister of Great Britain; and Clemenceau, the champion of France.

Wilson was the most idealistic of the three. He realized that Europe had to be delivered from the yoke of power politics, and had to make

a new adjustment in world relations. His triumphant reception in Europe showed that the common people regarded him as their savior and their spokesman. Almost instinctively they understood his concern for a permanent peace and his determination to build a new world.

Wilson, unfortunately, lacked political strategy. As a scholar he had too much faith in general principles. Reading his Fourteen Points is an elevating experience, but the critics asked, "How are these new principles, like self-determination, to be applied in the actual game of power politics?"

Many European politicians were skeptical about Wilsonian idealism. In effect, they said that America's desire to establish a new international authority and a peace based upon justice was caused mainly by America's distance from Europe and by America's isolation from the effects of the war. They believed that it was easy for the United States to be broad-minded and generous; as for themselves, having experienced the ravages of a conflict, they demanded restitution and retaliation. This is an important point, for American idealism can be seen in two ways. On the one hand, it may be regarded as a genuine, unselfish adherence to moral laws and to the welfare of humanity. On the other hand, it may be viewed as a sentimental expression of a rich nation given to occasional moods of philanthropy.

Lloyd George was far more practical than Wilson. He had little patience for general principles and high-sounding promises. Instead, he was concerned with the actual benefits that England would derive from the war. While fervent discussions were being held about a new League of Nations, he was thinking about the expansion of English trade, the acquirement of German colonies, and the destruction of German commercial supremacy. The electorate at home demanded that the Kaiser be hanged. Businessmen were determined that Germany should pay for the cost of the war. Lloyd George knew that if he made a mild peace, he would be repudiated by the voters in England.

Lloyd George's strongest asset was his ability to bargain. He was in an advantageous position because England at Versailles had to act as a mediator between France and the United States. The peace that resulted was, on the whole, an English peace, for it constituted a compromise between the French demand for cruel retaliation and the Wilsonian belief that the Fourteen Points should be put into practice.

Clemenceau was in many ways like Joseph Stalin. The same cool strength, the same unswerving determination, the same hatred of his enemies dominated the French "Tiger." Clemenceau was an old man. He had seen the ravages of the German army in 1870; he had never forgotten the loss of Alsace Lorraine. All his life he had been afraid of the German menace which, to him, was not something distant and vague, but immediate and tragically real. His dominant purpose was to establish French security, to prevent another invasion of France; he realized that if another war came, France could not hope to emerge again victorious.

ESSENTIALLY the same power complex still prevails, only today France has become a secondary power and her place has been taken by Russia.

The foremost goal of Russia in her peace negotiations is to prevent a recurrence of invasion. The margin between defeat and victory was very narrow for the Soviets. Russia, like France after World War I, is thinking almost exclusively in terms of security.

What does this mean? In the first place, Russia is determined to safeguard her frontiers. She will not allow a powerful nation to be established within her sphere of influence. Stalin may say that Russia is interested in the establishment of a strong and independent Poland, but his actions indicate the opposite. Russia, together with Germany, participated in the partition of Poland, and later on retained a considerable share of Polish territory. When Stalin expresses his desire to create a lasting friendship between Russia and Poland, it is a friendship based upon Russian control and at least indirect Russian domination.

The same principle governs Russia's outlook in relation to the future of Germany. Russia has what is almost a psychopathic fear that another powerful Germany may arise hostile to her program and to her national interests. Russia undoubtedly would not mind the creation of a unified Germany if that nation could become an ally or could be dominated by Communist influence. As long, however, as the Western influence is strong in Germany, Russia will fight with all her energy against a revival of German might. Russia views the peace in a most realistic way. She is determined to rebuild her nation as soon as possible, employing methods which are objectionable to the Western nations, but which she considers necessary for her security.

England's position has not changed materially

since the time of Lloyd George. Bevin may be a laborite, and he may have at least a theoretical dislike of imperialism, but England's strategic position remains the same. In order to safeguard the security of England, it has been his purpose to prevent the domination of Europe by Communism, and to speed up the recovery of Germany so that it again can become a fortress against bolshevism. Anglo-Saxon unity is dictated, not just by sentimental ties, but by common political, economic, military, and geographic interests. This time, just like after the last war, England is acting as a mediator between the conflicting interests. This position strengthens British influence and preserves the balance-of-power complex.

In spite of outward appearances, the position of the United States likewise has not changed materially. It is true that the military authorities have more influence on American foreign policy than at Versailles. No Wilson has yet appeared among the American statesmen who could speak for the interests of humanity. But there is the same antagonism toward Russia. It must be remembered that the American peacemakers at Versailles were desperately afraid that the Russian influence would spread all over Europe and would ultimately lead toward world domination. At the same time the United States is more interested in long-range plans for recovery and a mild peace than the other major nations. The reason for this attitude is clear. The United States experienced no invasion, and was the least harmed of all the major belligerents. The seeds of hatred are not, therefore, as strong in the United States as in other nations.

FAILURE OF PEACEMAKING

THE most evident limitation of the diplomats is their neglect of economic factors. They are so concerned about boundaries, political rights, and military control that they frequently overlook the economic implications of the peace. For example, by the Treaty of St. Germain, Austria was reduced from 28,500,000 inhabitants to 6,000,000 inhabitants. At the same time she could not form a union with the new German republic. Hungary, by the Treaty of Trianon, lost one-third of her former population. As a consequence, neither nation could exist as a separate economic unit; each was forced to depend upon foreign aid; and each succumbed to foreign domination.

The problem of reparations is even more complicated. Almost all the experts on international affairs in the United States agree that no reparations should have been exacted after World War II. Many historians will say categorically that a peace based upon reparations cannot last. But in the actual game of power politics, reparations are a necessity. Thus, Russia demands reparations because of the extent of her devastation, and because she feels that they are only a just compensation for the loss of life and economic machinery. Another reason is the feeling of Russian insecurity. By this line of reasoning, the looting of occupied territory is justified as an emergency measure. It is also, perhaps, a rationalization of Russian technological backwardness as compared with the United States and England. Even a more sinister motive lurks behind the current demand for reparations. If reparations are excessive, the defeated nation is weakened permanently and needs outside economic help. Thus the reparations are used like loans, and like the latter produce economic vassals.

Even more unfair than the demand for high reparations has been the settlement of boundary questions. The creation of Danzig as a free city under the administration of the League of Nations was a colossal blunder and, indeed, one of the causes for the outbreak of World War II. But this mistake has been repeated again with the establishment of Trieste as an independent unit under the United Nations. If anything, the solution of frontier problems after World War II is even more indefensible than the boundaries after World War I. Poland, to name the most dramatic example, has acquired territory that has not belonged to her for centuries and that Germany will almost certainly try to regain.

Undoubtedly the peace terms that followed World War II have been too harsh. It must be remembered that the cessation of hostilities did not mean the abandonment of the economic blockade of the former enemy nations. Such a policy was neither humanitarian nor intelligent. Long ago the Romans learned that a wise empire administration does not make serfs out of the subject population. Ultimately, such a procedure only burdens the taxpayers at home. Moreover, a harsh peace is impossible in the modern world because it cannot, in the long run, be enforced, and only creates more seeds of hatred. We can only hope that it is still not too late for us to profit from our hard-won experiences.

English Parents Repay a Debt

Greville Haslam

DURING the war many hundreds of British boys and girls were evacuated to America. Among them, by invitation, came a considerable number from the families of the faculty of Oxford University, and a smaller number from Cambridge. These groups were sponsored notably by the Yale Faculty Committee and by committees at Toronto and Swarthmore. The English parents were determined to make what payment was possible toward their children's support and education, but were prevented from so doing by exchange regulations; thereupon they formed the Oxford University Evacuation Trust Fund, and, without the knowledge of the American sponsor, paid in to it the money they were unable to send to America.

It was, therefore, with surprise that the heads of participating American schools received invitations to attend the 1947 summer school at Oxford as the guests of the Evacuation Trust. Upon arrival at Oxford each American received the sum of £100 (\$400) of which £60 paid the full cost of six weeks' tuition and board, and £40 met miscellaneous expenses. Approximately fifty school heads or their alternates attended.

The venture was an enormous success. In addition to the Trust group, there were nearly three hundred other students, mostly young graduates, representing most of the forty-eight states, every country in Europe except Russia, and a dozen other countries, including India, China, Colombia, the Gold Coast, New Zealand, and Canada. The curriculum, entitled "Western Civilization in the Twentieth Century," offered three options of Literature, Philosophy, and Politics and Economics, coordinated by a general lecture course to which all students were invited regardless of

their seminar subjects. An impressive group of lecturers participated in the program. The guests were told in the syllabus that "the University will endeavor to reproduce in this course the characteristic intellectual atmosphere of Oxford in term-time," and each student was assigned to a tutor, many of whom were eminent men in their fields.

Actually, many of the Americans felt that they enjoyed and gained equally from the student contacts that went on everywhere. In dining hall, on the tennis courts and lawns, while punting on the Cherwell, and in the "owl sessions" that took place every night, deep and permanent friendships were formed. The Oxford group was, in a sense, a miniature United Nations. Because many of the younger students are destined for leadership in their various countries, the value of this international experience under such hospitable auspices may be very substantial. The 160 American graduate students from half that number of our leading colleges and universities were a picked lot; their behavior was exemplary; they were generous, cordial, upstanding, and made their older compatriots of the Trust group exceedingly proud of them.

The University authorities and faculty, and everyone with whom the group came into contact, were utterly kind and gracious. Everyone in England seemed determined to make the stay a happy one. No trouble was spared in trying to arrange all sorts of entertainment for the students and to secure special privileges for them. These arrangements alone closely paralleled the curriculum; they varied from generous allowances of ration coupons to considerable private hospitality—an aspect of the program that caused the Americans misgiving, for they realized that it entailed grim sacrifice on the part of the host. That this hospitality was from the heart could not be more clearly shown than by a letter the writer has just received from the Oxford chairman of the arrangements, in which he states that they hope to continue their program in the summer of 1948.

In response to an invitation by the editor, the headmaster of The Episcopal Academy at Overbrook, Philadelphia, prepared this brief statement about the Oxford University Evacuation Trust Fund. Mr. Haslam participated in the program as one of the guests of the Oxford group.

Political Education—A Lost Art?

Robert A. Walker

RECENTLY I asked a class of college juniors and seniors what habeas corpus meant. No one volunteered an answer. I went around the table one by one. No one knew.

I have discovered in two years of experimental work in citizenship education that this kind of ignorance is typical, not exceptional. The fundamental rights and privileges of an American citizen are neither known nor understood by the present generation of students. Their minds are a clutter of vague ideas, effectively protected by strong emotional reactions to the clichés of modern demagoguery—"government interference," communistic, and the "American way of life."

If you ask them what the "American way of life" is, they can't tell you. If you ask them what communism is, they vaguely mention overthrow of the government, and become incoherent. If you ask them about government interference, nine times out of ten they will launch into a diatribe against OPA and the evils of labor unions. I teach in a rural area, but I have yet to hear a student begin by suggesting that government should get out of the business of supporting agricultural prices.

WEAKNESSES OF CIVIC EDUCATION

THE first lesson we have learned from two years of work at Kansas State College is that the schools have largely abandoned civic education of the newspapers, radio, and movies. Certainly the average student seems to know little more about political ideas and civic virtues than he could easily learn from these ever-present sources of public information. What does this signify from our standpoint as teachers of the social studies? It means, I believe, that the schools are losing their educational function to agencies that are not designed to assume it.

Social studies teachers at all levels of instruction will be interested in the program of experimentation and study now being carried on by the Institute of Citizenship at Kansas State College. The director of the Institute presented this paper at the St. Louis convention.

A discussion I had a few days ago with the executive editor of a large metropolitan daily may illustrate what I have in mind. He stressed that a newspaper must sell, and to sell it must find a common denominator in the reading habits of its subscribers. "No matter how good the copy," he said, "if it's over their heads, the public won't read it." He tells his staff, therefore, to seek the highest common denominator, not the lowest, but not to forget that it must be common.

In a word, education is not the primary purpose of newspapers or radios. Their function is to provide news, opinion, amusement, and an audience for advertisers. The motion pictures, as far as mass distribution is concerned, are almost wholly a vehicle for amusement. The schools, on the other hand, exist for the primary purpose of educating the young. All other functions—even amusement—are secondary. It is the job of the schools to determine what the highest or lowest common denominator is to be—to set the standard which the mass media of communication must meet. Since the latter notoriously aim low today, the schools have done a poor job indeed when students in high school or college show no understanding of political or social issues which surpasses yesterday's headlines.

A SECOND lesson we have learned is that modern education is an intimidating, rather than a liberalizing, process. For reasons I shall elaborate later, we are trying to get students to think for themselves and to express their own ideas. It takes at least half of the semester to convince each new class that we mean what we say. They struggle to find out what the teacher thinks before they venture an opinion. They lament our failure to give them nice pat phrases to memorize for the next examination. In brief, it has become obvious that an overwhelming majority of college students are not accustomed to thinking for themselves. They are afraid of alienating the teacher by saying something he doesn't agree with, and they are lost when asked to express an opinion on something not previously answered in a text or by the teacher.

A THIRD thing that we are learning is that average students can handle material of much higher educational value than is normally given them. Once we get over the hump of past habit patterns, our students are responding to the reading and discussion of relatively difficult materials with real enthusiasm. Because our purpose is to arouse interest and truly to enlighten the students, we try to avoid dull and superficial reading, substituting important political and ethical writings for the textbook. The thing that makes social issues interesting to students is the controversy they provoke; the element that makes for enlightenment is the understanding of the arguments advanced by leading protagonists. Our job as teachers is to teach students not *what* to think but *how* to think about the issues they will face as responsible citizens in a democracy. If this be true, it follows that our materials must call for thought, our methods stimulate thought. The experience of the Institute thus far has convinced us that both the materials and the methods are available if we would but learn to use them.

A FOURTH element that we are beginning strongly to suspect, but have not yet studied systematically, is that a major weakness in civic education is the way we train teachers. Students repeatedly tell us that if they dared to challenge the textbook or the teacher's ideas in most classes, in either high school or college, they would be rebuked. Two examples have been brought to my attention within the past month by our students. In one case, a student was asked why Freud's psychology was defective. He replied that he did not know, since he had not read Freud. The teacher sharply asked him whether he had not read the text, which dismissed Freud in one paragraph. The student's reply that he had, but thought the treatment insufficient for intelligent judgment, netted him the professor's ill will for the entire semester. In the second case, a student was told to stop wasting the class time when he questioned the treatment accorded certain social problems in a sociology class.

I mention these, not as exceptional, but as typical. My observation outside the college at which I now teach convinces me that it is typical of American education. We have become slaves of the textbook, the lecture, and the quiz. The aim is memorization of facts and phrases, not understanding. The end product is a grade and a degree, not an educated person. It isn't even popu-

lar to ask a group of teachers what an educated person is. I have found myself "behind the eight ball" for insisting that citizenship education be defined before a group of experts on the subject leaped into a discussion of techniques for accomplishing it. Since the term remained undefined, the subsequent discussion was comparable to a group of navigators trying to map out a route before the destination is determined. Navigators are useless until they have some place to go; teachers are useless until they know what they are trying to accomplish. In both cases, the techniques have value only in terms of a goal to be reached.

The evidence is growing that a great many teachers have lost sight of the important things in education. They are preoccupied with a ritual. Somehow they have failed to develop a philosophy of education that will preserve a clear sense of relative values under pressure. Work units, assignments, and quizzes are worse than useless if they demand a passive student, if the schedule must be preserved by the sacrifice of independence of thought.

WHAT IS GOOD CITIZENSHIP?

THIS brings me to the question of what we are trying to accomplish in the Institute of Citizenship. Our job was to carry on an experimental program in education for good citizenship. The project grew out of a conviction that the civic behavior of the American people is less responsible and less enlightened than we have a right to expect from the most extensive and expensive educational system the world has ever known. I shall not go into the arguments in support of this proposition, since I have done so elsewhere and my time here is limited. But you will agree, I believe, that one must have a working definition of good citizenship before he can either appraise today's citizens or map out possible ways of improving civic education. This was, I know, one of the first tasks undertaken by the Detroit Citizenship Study and it was the first tackled by the Institute of Citizenship. The results differ slightly, but that seems to me to be unimportant. Let those with an interest in the subject compare them with each other and with other approaches to the problem. If a new concept arises in the process, so much the better.

The definition we have used is this: the good citizen is the person able and willing to take an intelligent part in the discussion and solution of public issues.

There are several aspects of this concept that I should like to call to your attention. First, it distinguishes between the "good egg"—the nice fellow to have around—and the good citizen. We want our neighbors to be "good eggs," to clean their walks and rake their leaves, but the good citizen in a democracy must be that and more. He must be willing to assume his share of responsibility for the decisions made on public policy. Unless he does, he is an equally good citizen in a dictatorship. Democracy cannot survive on benign indifference.

Secondly, our concept of the good citizen calls for the ability to be intelligent. Aggressive stupidity is no asset to a democratic community, any more than is indifference. This means that the non-rational factors in social attitudes and civic behavior must be reduced to a minimum. Reason and judgment must be substituted for neurotic attachment to symbols, slogans, and supermen. Reason and judgment are the products of education; neurotic maladjustment to a changing world is the product of indoctrination and propaganda. Thus education and propaganda (or indoctrination) are basically in conflict, both in spirit and results. When we educate, we should seek to cultivate the use of reason and independent judgment; when we try to indoctrinate students in any set of ideas, we create barriers to reason and independent judgment.

Obviously, I view the intelligent person as one who faces a changing world with reason and independent judgment. Our problem as educators, therefore, is how to produce such persons and to reduce the barriers to success that past indoctrination has inevitably reared before us. I view this process as really two-fold—discipline of the conscious mind, and catharsis of the subconscious. I am not going to dwell on the latter, however, because it is largely an unexplored area as applied to public education, despite the provocative discoveries of modern psychiatry.

Our concern is with discipline of the conscious mind, and we have far to go to approximate what is possible in this direction. Let me be clear on my present use of the term "discipline" here, since it is not a nice word in some circles. It should be evident by now that I do not mean indoctrination. I mean training the mind to inform itself, evaluate alleged evidence, know logical processes of reasoning, analyze its own preconceptions, and have confidence in its own judgments. This I contrast with the superficial, prejudiced, intimidated mind.

AN ATTACK UPON THE PROBLEM

HOW, then, have we tackled the problem of cultivating the disciplined mind and the intelligent citizen? The approach has been through four channels. In the first we have sought to advance the student's capacity for informing and expressing himself. By giving him fairly difficult reading material, we try to raise his reading capacity above descriptive texts. By using the discussion method, we teach him to listen with some care and to state his ideas with sufficient definiteness to make them intelligible to others. It is in this connection that we have learned the lesson mentioned at the beginning of this paper—that is, students of average ability can learn to handle good written materials if we will but make them the heart of our courses instead of listing them as supplemental reading for non-existent spare time.

The second channel, which is very closely related to the first, is to teach the student to use logic instead of thinking with his red corpuscles—a favorite method of the late Mr. Hitler. The method employed is not primarily a matter of learning the formal rules of logic, although our students do learn the rules in a course taught outside the Institute. Our emphasis is on practice in logical analysis. The comparison of arguments which come out on opposite sides of an issue, the evaluation of what an important writer is saying, and the dissection of a student's glib generalities by his fellow students and the instructor—these are our tools. By these means the student learns to temper his positive assertions with some supporting argument. He becomes aware of prejudice and blind spots in others, and sometimes in himself. Above all, perhaps, he learns to state his own ideas, to defend them, and to have confidence in his own thinking. But this takes a lot of doing with the product of authoritarian teaching methods which we normally inherit.

Our third channel of approach is to give the student a first-hand knowledge of his political and social heritage. To cope wisely with the issues of his day, he should be able to see them in the setting of ideas that define and often create the problems he will face. These ideas are usually set forth in the writings of their principal proponents, whether they be Adam Smith or Marx; Hamilton or Jefferson; Lincoln or Douglas; Hutchins or Dewey. Now we can either read other people's analyses of these and similar antagonists, or we can read what they themselves say. On all counts, I urge the latter. They are

usually more readable, they are probably more interesting, and they are certainly more reliable. Let the student of our social and political institutions find his knowledge first in the writings of those who have done most to shape those institutions. He may then be prepared to deliberate the latter-day improvements on their work.

The fourth and final element in the Institute program is to recapture the educational importance of the moral virtues. Frightening though this idea is to many, we hold it to be essential to intelligent citizenship. I know of nothing more obvious to a student of contemporary life than the moral confusion that pervades it. "Every man for himself and the devil take the hindmost" is the working moral standard for large numbers of people in America. It is not a standard that will long support a democratic political order. And why not? Because democracy rests on a foundation of justice, tolerance, liberality, temperateness, courage, and honesty. These are the moral virtues, and as they are lost or ignored in the pursuit of wealth, sex, or excitement, a democratic social order is to that extent imperiled. We do not deliver sermons to our students, and we do not presume to take over the function of the church. But we do believe that moral standards are essential to intelligent action among men, and we hold that they can be understood apart from any particular religion. Thus our students analyze and compare the principal ethical traditions of western civilization—Greek, Hebrew, and Christian. Many of the students, we discover, are reading parts of the Bible for the first time in the Institute courses. In all cases, emphasis is not on difference in faith, but on the nature and validity of the ethical standards dominant in our culture.

CONCLUSIONS

IT SEEMS to be beyond question that the first obligation of public education is to prepare future citizens to take their place in a democratic

society. As I have tried to show, this means something more than preparing men and women to make a living, to be pleasant to their neighbors, or to use their leisure time. It is that "something more" which is the peculiar province of citizenship education. I have suggested that it include the preparation of citizens to take an active and responsible part in the discussion and solution of public issues. This, it seems to me, is likewise the distinctive responsibility of teachers of the social studies. If you do not do the job, no one will.

The Institute of Citizenship has been experimenting with ways in which we can do a better job. We are demonstrating, I think, that civic education can be placed on a higher level than is now generally practiced. Average students can learn to think more clearly about political ideas. They can learn to express themselves coherently and honestly. They can use effectively materials of much higher educational value than those commonly used today. And teaching can be a stimulating process if our goal of developing a free mind is not lost in meeting routine daily requirements.

We have a great deal yet to learn. Our courses are being constantly revised in search of the best possible selection and arrangement of material. The question of applying this type of program on a large scale poses real difficulties, both in making the materials available at low cost and in training teachers to use new techniques. We need to know a lot more about adapting the principles involved to secondary education.

But I am optimistic. On the basis of our experience thus far, I am convinced that none of these problems are insoluble. Much more important is the existence of a real will among teachers of the social studies to raise the level of civic education in the United States. This is our common problem.

Teaching Conservation in the Elementary Schools

Frank H. Gorman

THROUGHOUT most of their history the people of the United States have possessed a land of seemingly inexhaustible natural resources. This fact lulled the nation into a feeling of security and boundless optimism. The prevailing attitude was one of complete faith in the endless bounty of nature. As a result, natural and human resources were carelessly exploited, and sensitivity to human rights and welfare was considerably dulled. It was not, as we have realized for some time, a healthy situation.

THE PROBLEM

TODAY the picture is changed. There are no more geographical frontiers in our country. Only half the original forest remains. The soil, generally speaking, is only about half as rich as it once was. Much of it has become entirely non-productive through erosion and over-cropping. Millions of acres of once fertile farmland have been abandoned. The deposits of coal, iron, copper, lead, oil, gas, and other natural resources are being used at a rate that will eventually lead to scarcity. Wild plant and animal life has been decimated, partly by excessive-killing, but mostly by the destruction of its natural requirements. Some species have become extinct; some are almost gone; most have suffered in some degree. Meanwhile, streams are polluted by sewage and industrial wastes, making them unfit for fish and other water life. Their channels are filled with silt brought down from the denuded uplands, making them unfit for navigation and a flood menace in rainy seasons. Because of the rapid run-off of water, the underground water level, called the water table, has receded several feet in many regions. We have, in short, treated our physical world as something to be "mined," not

as something to be kept productive.

The supply of productive human resources is also reaching a point of decline. Population is beginning to level off and we are faced with the problem of providing for the workers better methods of preparation, better opportunities for adjustment to the changing requirements of technology, and better living and working conditions. Moreover, the increasing use of machines and other conveniences in all aspects of our modern life has greatly multiplied the hazards of living. Safety as a phase of conservation has become of utmost importance. It is quite obvious that from now on the continued high level of American life must depend, in considerable measure, upon the intelligence we as a people exercise in dealing with the problems of conservation.

Conservation is, consequently, a matter of tremendous social significance. A proper view toward it is rapidly being recognized as an essential of good citizenship. For that reason, it is important that children acquire certain basic understandings and attitudes related to conservation problems. They should be taught to appreciate that a nation's prosperity, economic stability, happiness, and cultural advancement are greatly influenced by its supply of natural and human resources. They should be led to see that even a nation's independence is affected by this supply. Children should be helped to realize the part that natural resources play in furnishing the necessities of life, and in contributing to the esthetic and recreational life of the people. They should be made aware of the extent to which the soil, forests, minerals, available water supply, and wildlife have been depleted and unwisely exploited, and the human resources mismanaged. They should be led to know the factors that have been responsible for this loss, and how the situation can be corrected. Children should be taught to see that conservation is significant to their own future. This is one of their social responsibilities, for good citizenship requires that one preserve for others the things that have contributed to his own welfare and pleasure.

"Good citizenship requires that one preserve for others the things that have contributed to human welfare and pleasure," writes the author of this article. Dr. Gorman is head of the Department of Elementary Education at Butler University, Indianapolis, Indiana.

CONSERVATION DEFINED

CONSERVATION has been defined in numerous ways, but most of them center around two or three major ideas. In a broad sense, conservation involves the preservation, restoration, and management of natural and human resources to the end that men may live on a higher intellectual and spiritual plane.

Preservation. This means saving what we have. It is the first task in conservation. In the case of forests, it means that they should be carefully protected from fire, and used only as freely as they can be renewed, which is a matter of approximately half a century. Preservation of the soil is an even more difficult problem, for it is renewed by natural processes at a rate that probably does not exceed one foot in 4000 to 6000 years. Preservation of the soil consists in not allowing erosion to occur more rapidly than the soil is being formed, and in not depleting it of those limited, essential, plant-food elements, such as nitrogen, potassium, and phosphorus. The mineral deposits may be preserved by reducing the waste in mining and extracting; by refraining from using them for those purposes in which they are destroyed in a single service; by refraining from using them in ways that make them deteriorate rapidly, as iron does when it is exposed to the weather without a protective covering; and by substituting renewable resources for them wherever possible. Coal and other fuel deposits may be saved by reducing the waste in extracting them from the earth; by using substitutes where possible; and by utilizing them economically through fuel-saving practices and equipment. The preservation of wildlife may be effected by maintaining breeding reserves sufficient to insure the perpetuation of the species; by providing suitable environment; and by obeying the laws established for its protection. The nation-wide effort to preserve the supply of wild ducks, geese, quails, turkeys, and other birds is an illustration of what can be done. In the case of water, the problem is to establish the supply where it can be used completely—for domestic purposes, for water power, and for utilization by plant and animal life. Preservation of human resources consists of providing protection through safety education and precautionary measures, and in making possible the long-continued service of men by means of opportunity for occupational adjustment to age aptitude, and physical capacity.

Restoration. This refers to the problem of increasing and renewing the supply. Many defor-

ested areas can and are being restored by planting, but the period of growth is long. Much soil can be replenished by stoppage of erosion, addition of fertilizer, and planting it in non-cultivable crops that are not removed. Many areas of non-productive soil are being made useful through irrigation. The mineral deposits are being kept in supply by the discovery of new sources. Wildlife that is not too nearly exterminated may be restored by providing the proper environment and protection from greedy hunters and "nature lovers." The national undertaking to restore the buffalo and beaver is an example of this phase of conservation. The available water supply may be restored by taking measures to reduce the runoff. The practice of terracing, digging ponds, building dams in streams, and returning lands to grass and forest are among the means used to restore the water table. Human resources need no restoration, but the welfare of the nation does depend upon the provision of conditions that make it possible for people to rear and educate the number of children they desire.

Management. This means the handling and control of resources in a way that will insure the most effective use. It is the most important element in conservation. It means maintaining basic supplies of renewable resources, and utilizing or harvesting only those surpluses that are produced from the foundation supplies. The programs of forest management, wildlife management, flood control, employment services, on-the-job training, and all the rest are phases of management in conservation.

SAFETY EDUCATION

BECAUSE safety education is a phase of human conservation and is, therefore, essentially social, it merits heavy emphasis in the elementary social studies program. Safety is a civic responsibility of each citizen. Its control and enforcement is a social issue of utmost importance. The accident problem ranks in seriousness with such social problems as housing, health, labor, and taxation. Evidence of the extreme significance of safety education is contained in the following facts: Accidents kill one out of three school-age children who die. In an average year, twenty-two times as many children of elementary-school age are killed in accidents as die from infantile paralysis, to say nothing of the number permanently incapacitated. Helping to save children from accidents is a responsibility of the social studies program, but even more important is the task of teaching them how to meet the

hazards of the modern world after they leave the supervision of the elementary school. For these reasons, the social studies program should lead children to acquire certain understandings and attitudes with respect to safety.

In order that safety education may serve its purpose properly, the social studies should help the child to appreciate that safety is a major social problem. They should lead the child to understand that accidents do not "just happen." Accidents have causes that can be controlled like other causes, and, consequently, the child's safety, and that of others, depends upon the nature of his own conduct in the presence of danger, and in his efforts to maintain a safe environment. The social studies should teach the pupil that safety enriches life by making it possible for him to enjoy new experiences and adventures with a minimum of risk. They should teach him that obstacles can be overcome by the exercise of foresight and considered action. They should teach him to realize that higher standards of living have been brought about in large part by the search for a better way of life (for example, efforts to control disease), and that even most laws and law-enforcement practices exist largely for man's own safety.¹ The social studies promote in the child habits of carefulness and obedience to safety rules at home, on the street, in school, and on the playground.

PRINCIPLES OF INSTRUCTION IN CONSERVATION

IN CONSERVATION education, as in other areas, the teaching procedures are more effectively applied if certain principles are followed. Among the principles found to be reliable are:

1. *Conservation education logically belongs to, and should permeate, all parts of the program of social studies.* The study of conservation has a place in almost every part of elementary social studies at all grade levels. Because of this relationship, it is preferable to incorporate the appropriate conservation study into the regular social studies experiences. How this organization may be secured is illustrated in a later part of this article.

2. *In order that conservation knowledge and practice may be more meaningful and functional, it should be given in an active learning situation where pupils recognize their need.* Children are not normally interested in knowledge of conser-

vation except as it is associated with some social, vocational, or other kind of activity in which they are concerned. To illustrate, knowledge of water control is usually of most interest to children when they experience floods or see the results of floods. They appreciate the value of protecting soil from erosion when they see the seeds they have planted washed from their beds by a dashing rain. Children are interested in traffic safety when they encounter hazards in crossing streets on their way to and from school. In any case, conservation information, to be effectively accepted, must be given or recalled at the time when a child faces a situation that is of personal concern to him. It is naturally best that the problems or interests be those that arise in his own activities, but they may well be introduced by the teacher and accepted wholeheartedly by the pupil.

3. *Presentation of conservation information should be made through such means as vivid, meaningful demonstrations, audio-visual aids, dramatization, pupil-conducted projects, and group discussions.* Information as important as conservation facts and principles should be given children through media that will enable them to grasp the situations and ideas as completely and accurately as possible. Children should be made to sense fully the reality of the conditions. The opportunity to observe and to participate in concrete studies, and to exchange experiences and impressions relative to conservation problems and activities, is the surest means of developing correct understanding by the children.

4. *Growth of learning in conservation education should be evaluated in terms of improvement in behavior and attitudes.* Knowledge of conservation is not enough; it must be integrated with conduct and attitudes. How the child continues to act and feel toward the matter of wild-life preservation, or toward the practice of safety in the home and on the street and playground, is the result that really counts. Permanent interest and activity are the required goals of instruction in conservation. All teaching should utilize those techniques that lead to continued growth in self-initiation and maintenance of practices of conservation.

INTEGRATION WITH THE SOCIAL STUDIES

CONSERVATION work is related to the entire social studies program in almost countless ways. The number of challenging activities is practically unlimited. Listed below are a few suggestive illustrations of ways in which the study

¹ H. J. Stark and E. B. Siebrecht, editors, *Education for Safe Living*. (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1942), p. 16-23.

of conservation may be integrated with some of the frequently-taught units in the elementary school.

Living at Home and at School (Kindergarten and Grade I). In the earliest years of school life there are numerous opportunities to teach the need for conservation. (1) The children can, as a result of group discussion, formulate rules for saving fuel, water, electricity, food, clothing, toys, and equipment of various kinds. (2) Children can also list the hazards in the home and school, and formulate and practice ways of avoiding or meeting hazardous situations. This study can be carried on by means of discussion, demonstration, and dramatization.

The House We Live In (Grades III and IV). As pupils move into a study of home life, opportunities increase for teaching conservation. They might, for instance, engage in some of the following activities: (1) Make a study of the materials used in constructing houses, with attention to the abundance or scarcity of these materials. (2) Make a study of the materials used in building houses, with attention to the durability, insulating value, cost, and attractiveness of such materials. (3) Make a survey of the problem of upkeep in relation to the durability of materials and convenience of structure. (4) Make a survey of the hazards present in the structure and utilization of the houses and their equipment. This may include the placement of the electrical outlets, presence of stair rails, placement of steps, the location and quality of heating equipment, plumbing, lighting fixtures, and other permanent features of a house. A check list for scoring their own houses could be prepared by the pupils. (5) Make a study of the human resources required in the construction and upkeep of houses, including carpenters, masons, plumbers, painters, and others. (6) Make a study of some of the government regulations for building and maintaining safe houses, such as local building codes and state and local laws regulating the use of build-

ings. (7) Construct a model house incorporating their own ideas in regard to the conservation of materials and adequate provision for safeguarding the health and well-being of the occupants.

Living in the Various Regions of the United States (Grades V and VI). Children in the middle grades of the elementary school might engage in some of the following activities: (1) Make a study of the problems of preservation, restoration, and management of wildlife, soil, water, minerals, and other natural resources found in their own region of the country. (2) Prepare maps showing the location and extent of wildlife preserves in their state or region. (3) Prepare maps or charts showing the present area of productive soils in the United States in contrast with that of twenty-five or fifty years ago. (4) Make a study of the hazards of the natural environment, including the climate, topography and harmful plants and animals. (5) Make a study of the industries and occupations of the region in which they live, with emphasis upon the dangers faced in these occupations and the measures taken to protect workers from these dangers.

THESE are merely a few suggestions for teaching conservation in the elementary school. Imaginative teachers—and there are many such—will continue to think of numerous other ways to do the job. The point we wish to emphasize is that the problem of conserving our natural resources—involving preservation, restoration, and management—is a local as well as a national problem. It is, indeed, a world problem. So, too, is the problem of conserving human resources. Starting in the nursery school and kindergarten, teachers should devote a substantial part of their time to the task of developing sound understandings, attitudes, and habits in respect to the conservation of human and natural resources. Children who study with such teachers will be traveling the road that leads to good citizenship.

Common Sense in the Use of Films

J. M. Klock

MANY teachers are convinced that there is some magic in visual education. These teachers are particularly impressed, for some strange reason, with those kinds of visual materials that are projected on a screen. Serious studies are often ignored,¹ while articles written in a popular vein and excellent advertising by vendors of visual equipment are accepted at their face value. As a consequence, many in our profession feel that the millennium is here, and that we can now have teaching that is not only effective but also interesting and easy. At last learning is to be accomplished with a sugar-coated capsule, and the only requirement for teacher certification need be the ability to run the various projection machines.

LIMITATIONS OF FILMS

OF COURSE visual aids have a definite and important place in the educational program, but if they are to be used efficiently and effectively many common misconceptions concerning them must be corrected.

First, a student does not necessarily acquire new knowledge from a film. We have been told so many times that "one picture is worth ten thousand words," that we tend to believe it. The truth is that some pictures are not worth ten good words. Too many teachers think that if students see pictures—any pictures—through some wonderful process they will automatically learn something. Actually, a picture without meaning teaches nothing. A recent social studies film, for example, consists of scenes of airplanes taking off from and landing at airports. Although there are some excellent "shots" in the film, particularly of night scenes at airports, it is doubtful if anyone learns very much by seeing this motion picture. It consists merely of a good title and a few

frames of interesting photography. The material related to nothing in particular, is practically worthless from the standpoint of any real instruction. Despite these serious limitations, this film is shown in social science classes and consumes valuable class periods.

Second, a student does not necessarily acquire new understanding from a film. Extravagant claims have been made that the present generation will have a better understanding of the origins of World War II because so much of the flavor and atmosphere has been captured in motion pictures. This and future generations of students can, for instance, see newsreels of Chamberlain with his umbrella getting into an airplane in England and landing in Munich. Although motion pictures of this type have a place in the educational program, they will not give a student an understanding of such complicated problems as the origins of the war. Furthermore, if the origins of this or any other complicated event are presented in an oversimplified way the student will secure a dangerously superficial picture.

Third, visual education materials may actually confuse students. The fact is that all films in all subjects, when used for instructional purposes, have a tendency to confuse. There are several reasons for this: For one thing, motion picture scripts are definitely limited in length, and as a result often present too much material in too brief a time. Moreover, ideas are conveyed largely through pictures. Words, whether printed or spoken on a sound track, are held to a minimum, for the film industry frowns on the use of too many words. Unfortunately, it is difficult to convey ideas with pictures alone, and as a consequence many of the films are extremely poor in quality. Finally, films tend to confuse because of the theory behind the writing of scripts in most companies. All too frequently the attempt is made to create what is called a "whale of a story." This is done by making a chart of the "interest line." In such charts, "interest" starts

In this realistic discussion an instructor of the social sciences at Michigan State College seeks to destroy the idea that educational films can, by some magical alchemy of modern times, replace the intelligent teacher. Mr. Klock warns of the pitfalls in the use of films, and suggests a practical program for the effective utilization of visual aids.

¹ J. G. Umstattd, *Secondary School Teaching*. (Boston: Ginn, 1937), p. 288-291. This is an excellent summary of the purposes of visual education. Some considerations of the limitations of visual education are given on pages 295-298.

out a little high in order to catch the attention at once. Then the "interest material" is allowed to decline slightly in order to enable the normal sequence of the story to take place. Gradually, as the story progresses, various tricks are used to build the "interest line" up to a climax. Once this point is reached, the film rapidly ends. If one looks at the profile of an interest chart, he will discover that he has the profile of a whale, and therefore has created "a whale of a story." Many a good script has been ruined for educational purposes by stressing the psychology of attention instead of the psychology of learning.

Fourth, as we have suggested, some films are worthless because they are too brief. For example, a film on meteorology used during the war by many schools and some branches of the armed services was so poor that students who saw it became almost hopelessly confused.

There are now a number of films in circulation dealing with the territorial growth of the United States. Most of them follow the same general plan. In fifteen or twenty minutes they present the growth of the United States by showing a few pertinent scenes. The whole thing moves so rapidly and is so confused with flashing lights, moving boundaries, music, a loud sound track, and changing scenes that the students become completely bewildered. If the students were to see some of the better of these films over and over twenty or thirty times, they might, through repetition, memorize the growth of the nation. But if that is our objective, we can achieve it much more easily and without the confusion of the music and scenes by having the students memorize an appropriate map.

FILMS ARE AIDS TO LEARNING

WE SHOULD think in terms of "visual aids" and not "visual education," for visual material may not be the best way to teach a given unit. It may be a good way, or it may have some validity as a teaching aid, but probably in no case should the visual material be used as the sole means of presenting the subject matter of a unit. For example, there are some good films on air navigation, and they are often excellent as teaching aids, but not one by itself is adequate as the sole means of teaching even the elementary facts about air navigation. We in the social studies have fortunately not yet gone so far in this respect as our colleagues in the physical sciences, although there is some danger that we may attempt to do so. I have actually seen a course in automotive mechanics taught entirely

by films, much to the loss of the students who were taking the course. Certainly in such a course visual aids should have an important place, but it is inexcusable to eliminate the process of learning by doing. This extreme illustration reminds us that visual materials are merely one of the teaching aids available to educators.

Visual education materials which are inaccurate lead, of course, to erroneous learning, and there is a tremendous amount of material on the market today that is full of error. For example, one of the largest and best known visual aid companies has prepared a filmstrip on gasoline engines. The diagrams presented in the filmstrip show how an internal combustion engine operates, *but* there is no hint that spark plugs are required. The student sees the compression stroke, and then the firing, with nothing involved in igniting the mixture. In the field of the social sciences some of the best-looking films on the market—beautifully done technicolor sound films—are so full of error, or so falsify facts in order to get interest, that they are practically worthless. Furthermore, many films in circulation are nothing but propaganda. They are distributed by pressure groups for classroom use under the guise of "visual education."

INTELLIGENT USE OF FILMS

ONE of our greatest needs, then, is a critical review of all materials available for visual aids, and a continuing review of new material as it comes out. This is a big project, but until it is done our use of visual aids will not be very effective. Experts in the various fields should review visual materials in the professional journals, just as books are now reviewed. An evaluation of the materials needs to be made from the standpoint of accuracy, reliability, teachability, relevance to certain teaching units, value in relation to the time required for using the materials, grade levels, and availability.

Visual education cannot be used as a continual stimulation. At first it attracts attention as a novelty, but with repeated use the initial interest declines. This point is emphasized because so many manufacturers of visual-aid equipment use results obtained from regular commercial amusement films as a selling point.² Studies by the commercial companies reveal that in a given picture a large per cent of the audience notice

² Some serious studies fall into this error of basing conclusions in regard to learning on results taken from commercial amusement films. See W. W. Charters, *Motion Pictures and Youth*. (New York: MacMillan, 1935), p. 8-9.

that the star drank a certain type of soft-drink or drove a certain make of automobile, and from this evidence they jump to the conclusion that visual education has a great value as a means of getting and holding attention. There is, however, all the difference in the world between the visual-education material that is used to teach students, and the amusement films that they see. We could get the same stimulation if we taught American history or problems of American democracy with fiction books instead of with textbooks and other scholarly materials, and our results might be better than those obtained from the use of poor visual aids.

VISUAL materials, like any other teaching aids, will be effective only as they are used effectively by the good teacher. We are not yet ready to make the teacher merely a display artist. A picture of and by itself usually teaches nothing, if, indeed, it does not actually confuse. A picture can not draw a conclusion. Visual-education materials must be teachable, they must be relevant to a unit, and they must not be used merely to fill class periods or to amuse students.

THERE are definite steps in teaching with visual aids. If the material consists of a film, it should be previewed, and if possible, the teacher should preview it before the unit is even planned. An attempt should be made to find critical reviews of the film. Actually, not many such reviews are yet available; most "reviews" are hardly more than advertising blurbs, prepared by interest groups that are trying to push the film.

After the film has been critically previewed it must be carefully fitted into the appropriate unit, and the schedule for showing the film must

be prepared. Before the presentation students should be given an introduction to the film. Perhaps some part of the vocabulary needs to be explained; perhaps some of the situations are not clear and need to be discussed; perhaps the film does not present sufficient background material to enable the student to understand the action of the problem; perhaps it contains errors that need to be corrected. The students also need to know what to watch for in the film. Let them know why the film is being shown. This is a good check. If there is no purpose, the time of the teacher and the students is being wasted. Finally, go through the material of the film briefly so that the students can more effectively follow the action when it unfolds on the screen. After all, an educational film is not like a murder mystery at the local cinema with a surprise ending, and if there is a close resemblance, then something is definitely wrong. Unfortunately, some of the most expertly made films on American history have turned out to be regular "thrillers" that contain more fiction than fact. Only a careful and critical preview will prevent the use of such films.

After a careful introduction, and after the film has been seen, there should be an evaluation by the students. This should not be a test. Instead, the evaluation should consist of a class discussion that seeks to point up the purpose of the film and to crystallize the new knowledge and understandings that have been gained.

Visual materials can be extremely effective. In fact, they are undoubtedly one of the most valuable teaching aids we have. They are of value, however, only if properly selected and used. Their uncritical use will result in the waste of money, equipment, and valuable time needed for purposes of education.

"The American people have long recognized that provision of an adequate education for everyone is essential in a democratic system of government. It has become evident in recent years that the financial resources of many States and their subdivisions are not sufficient to meet minimum educational standards. Therefore, I urge the Congress to take prompt action to provide grants from the Federal Government to the States for elementary and secondary education. The Budget estimates provide for beginning this program in the fiscal year 1949." President Truman. Budget message to Congress, January 12, 1948.

Notes and News

Iowa Council

The Iowa Council for the Social Studies will hold a two-day spring meeting on March 12 and 13 at the Iowa State Teachers College in Cedar Falls. Erma Plaehn, president of the ICSS, is planning the program for the meeting.

E. P.

Texas Council

At the Thanksgiving meeting of the Texas State Teachers Association, the Social Science Section combined with the Texas Council for the Social Studies. As a result, the Texas Council for the Social Studies is now an official section of the State Teachers Association. The TCSS was organized just before the war, but travel restrictions and war activities left it in an inactive status for several years. Plans are now being developed for an active program that will make a significant educational contribution to the state. Officers of the council are president, Mrs. Harry Chinn, Uvalde High School, Uvalde; and secretary-treasurer, Miss Midge Langendorff, 1243 Bailey Avenue, San Antonio. J. W. Baldwin of the University of Texas is serving as an adviser to the TCSS.

J. W. B.

Houston Council

The Houston Council for the Social Studies is a newly organized local council in Texas which has applied for affiliation with the National Council. Officers are: president, Helen Weinberg; vice-president, Evelyn Winfrey; treasurer, Lee Duggan; and secretary, Nelda Davis.

N. D.

New Jersey Council

The New Jersey Association of Teachers of Social Studies held a joint meeting with the New Jersey Council of Geography Teachers in Atlantic City on November 8. The presiding officers at the meeting were Edwin M. Barton and Adelbert Boths, presidents respectively of the two organizations. Henry Warman, Clark University, spoke on "Geography Teachers in the Modern World," and Erling M. Hunt, Columbia University, spoke on "U. S. History in a World

Setting." At the business meeting, a new constitution was adopted for the NJATSS. Important alterations in the new constitution provide for changing the name of the association to the New Jersey Council for the Social Studies; to hold the annual meeting in the spring instead of the fall; and to create a standing committee on "Research," and an "Editorial Advisory Board." Other action taken included the adoption of the following resolution: "Resolution relating to the participation of the New Jersey Council for the Social Studies and the New Jersey Council of Geography Teachers in cooperative activities. Whereas, The two associations named above desire to improve the quality of history, citizenship, and geography teaching in New Jersey, and each has much to gain from mutual exchange of ideas and materials; be it *Resolved*, That the two associations plan, during the next two years, to conduct at least one joint statewide meeting; and That it is our wish that the Executive Committees of the two associations jointly consider other possibilities for collective activity." Elected officers of the New Jersey Council for the Social Studies are: president, Edwin M. Barton, Elizabeth; vice-president, Maurine W. Eaton, Haddon Heights; secretary-treasurer, John W. Owen, Trenton.

The November issue of *The Docket*, published by the New Jersey Council for the Social Studies and edited by Charles H. Berger of Elizabeth, contains an editorial on the world history course, articles discussing the state curriculum bulletins on the social studies course in the elementary and junior high school, an article on the correlation of English and American history courses, and news notes.

J. W. O. and E. M. B.

Greater Cleveland Council

The Greater Cleveland Council for the Social Studies reports a successful year in two important aspects, membership and program. The Council is now representative of fifteen suburban areas surrounding Cleveland proper. The membership is over 780; of these, 138 are national members. The enthusiasm for the membership drive exhibited by the representatives from the different school buildings has been an indication

of the growing interest in the organization.

The program for the past year was varied in order to appeal to the many interests of the social studies teacher. January: W. Linwood Chase, Boston University, *Priorities in Elementary Social Studies*; April: George B. Cressey, Professor of Geography, Syracuse University, *Nature's Gifts to China*; May: Allen Y. King, Supervisor of Social Studies, Cleveland Public Schools, *The Problem of Re-education of Germany*; October: James A. Michener, Associate Editor, Macmillan Publishers, *The Future of the Social Studies*; November: W. Linwood Chase, Boston University, *Are We Being Realistic in the Teaching of the Social Studies?* Meetings were held in March and December on audio-visual aids and the use of radio in the classroom. The GCCSS met at the joint meeting of the American Historical Association and the National Council, held in Cleveland on December 29. A series of meetings for each month have been planned for the remainder of the school year.

The officers for 1948 are president, Clarence Killmer; vice-president, Russell Cunningham; recording secretary, Emma Harris; corresponding secretaries, Lucille Vickery and Janet Cameron; treasurer, Leonard Vitcha; and editor of *The Reporter*, Cordelia Horn.

The November, 1947, issue of *The Reporter*, published by the Greater Cleveland Council, carries a report on the aid the local council has given to the German social studies program. Members of the council have contributed Yearbooks of the National Council, copies of *Social Education*, and numerous other publications to the council which has forwarded them to Germany for distribution to curriculum laboratories.

E. F.

Missouri Council

The Missouri Social Studies Bulletin for December contains an article by Jesse M. Willitt of Kansas City on "The Pan American Conference," in which an approach to a unit on Latin America in the American history course is discussed. Another article reviews the National Council's Yearbook, *The Study and Teaching of American History*.

The Missouri Council held its Annual Meeting in November. The group was addressed by the president of the National Council, W. Linwood Chase, who spoke on "Bench Marks for the Social Studies Teacher." At the business meeting, the following officers were elected: president,

John L. Harr, Maryville; vice-president, Buena Stolberg, Webster Groves; secretary-treasurer, W. Francis English; and for members of the board of control, Edna Gales, Kansas City, and Laura E. Wadsworth of Flat River Junior College.

WOTP

The World Organization of the Teaching Profession, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C., has recently issued an 8-page leaflet describing the purposes, program, and structure of the Organization. Included are membership provisions and application blanks. Leaflets are sent free on request to individuals or groups interested in membership in WOTP.

New York State Council

The New York State Council for the Social Studies held its annual winter meeting in Syracuse on December 8, 1947. Following a brief word of welcome from President Kathryn Heffernan of Marcellus, Rosemary Wilcox of Jamestown introduced the morning speakers. James A. Storing and William C. Kessler, Professor of Political Science and Assistant Professor of Economics, respectively, at Colgate University, presented discussions of the "Political and Economic Problems Facing the World Today." Ernest Frier of the New York State Education Department presented a paper prepared by Harry V. Gilson, Associate Commissioner of Education, New York, on "The Place of the Social Studies in the State of New York."

Richard C. Burkhardt, Syracuse University, presided at the afternoon session. Stuart Gerry Brown of the Maxwell School of Citizenship, Syracuse University, presented his views "On Teaching the Documents of American Democracy," followed by Albert B. Corey, State Historian and Director of the Division of Archives of the University of the State of New York, speaking on "Original Sources and the Social Studies."

Three classroom teachers—Marjorie Wilson, Syracuse; John Steinberg, Garden City; and Robert Moody of Rushville—presented short discussions of "What we are doing in our school to make democracy work." The meeting was closed following a short business session at which time Gladys Newell of Delmar, presented a committee report on "Opportunities for closer cooperation between classroom teachers and the State Education Department."

Robert Rose of Fulton succeeds Miss Heffernan

as council president for the coming year. Other elected officers are as follows: first vice-president, Rosemary Wilcox, Jamestown; second vice-president, Gladys Newell, Delmar; executive secretary and treasurer, Roy A. Price, Syracuse University. H. L. J.

Geography Council

The National Council of Geography Teachers held its thirty-fourth meeting at the University of Virginia, December 27-29. The meeting was held in conjunction with meetings of the Association of American Geographers and the American Society for Professional Geographers. At the meetings of the NCGT, a number of the papers presented were preliminary drafts of chapters prepared for the Nineteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, which will deal with the study and teaching of geography and the place of geography in the social studies program. This Yearbook is scheduled for publication in November, 1948, and will be sent to all NCSS members in good standing as of that month. Papers presented at the meeting included the following topics: *The Purpose of Social Education*, *Geographic Instruction in the Primary School*, *The Vertical Articulation of Geographic Instruction*, *The Horizontal Articulation of Geographic Instruction*, *Newer Emphases in Geographic Instruction*, *The Treatment of Geography in History Courses*, *The Geography of Nations*, *World Geography*, *The Treatment of Geographic Understandings in Integrated Social Studies Courses*, *Geography in the Teacher Education Program*, *Reading Geography*, *Developing Map Skills*, *Using Still Pictures*, and *Community Resources and the Geography Teacher*.

The following were elected as officers of the National Council of Geography Teachers for 1948: president, Tom Barton; first vice-president, Earl B. Shaw; second vice-president, Loyal Durand, Jr.; secretary, Clyde F. Kohn; treasurer, John H. Garland; and to the executive board for three years, Mamie L. Anderzohn and Henry J. Warman.

Burr W. Phillips

Readers of *Social Education* will be interested in knowing that an article by Burr W. Phillips, "History and Other Social Studies in American Schools," appeared in the September, 1947, issue of *Die Pädagogische Provinz*. This was the first appearance of a new educational magazine now being edited by Dr. Kurt Debus for German teachers and scholars.

United Nations Contest

Thousands of students from some 2500 schools throughout the country are expected to compete for a European trip in the 22nd annual high school contest of the American Association for the United Nations. The first prize trip, arranged in cooperation with American Youth Hostels this year, reinstates the overseas tour which was replaced with cash awards during the war.

Open to public, private, and parochial high school students under 21 years of age, the contest takes the form of an examination on the United Nations, and will be held April 9, 1948. Study material is furnished by the AAUN to each participating school, which may enter two papers in the final competition for national prizes, including a second prize of \$100. Local prizes are offered by branches of AAUN and cooperating groups in 27 states.

Fresh impetus is given to this year's competition by the decision of the General Assembly asking member nations to include study of the UN in their curricula. In many schools in this country, the contest already has become an established part of the classroom work on international relations. Out of the 1925 schools participating last year, Beatrice Hauser of Sheboygan, Wisconsin, was first prize winner.

Teachers wishing to enroll their schools in the contest should register with AAUN at 45 East 65th Street, New York. Study kit material includes the United Nations Charter and a history of the UN called *We, the Peoples*, a newly revised 1947 edition.

Ten Major Educational Events of 1947

The Educational Press Association reports the fourth annual compilation of the outstanding educational events of the year as follows:

1. Appropriation of a total of more than \$300 million by the state legislatures to raise teacher salaries and improve school programs.

Nearly every state legislature came to the aid of its teachers and schools by appropriating emergency funds to help teachers cope with rising prices—even though further inflation nullified the raises.

2. The Supreme Court ruling permitting public school buses to carry parochial pupils—an event which deepened the rift between Protestants and Catholics on the issue of whether public funds should be used to aid nonpublic schools.

The famous New Jersey Bus Case may lead to further

use of public funds for nonpublic school purposes and thus breach the wall between the State and Church which the Constitution has set up, some educators say. Catholic leaders, however, believe that public funds for parochial school use is justified since they are used for the "general welfare."

3. The report of the President's Advisory Commission on universal military training urging immediate passage of compulsory military training for youth.

This has stimulated organization of national lobby groups both for and against training, has caused some educators to reconsider their traditional opposition to compulsory training. Schoolmen have still to reach a final decision on their stand on this issue.

4. The county-by-county law suits by Negroes against school authorities in Virginia—an act which symbolizes the mobilization of Negro forces to abolish segregation in both higher and public school education.

Negroes have changed tactics on the education issue. They believe that the "separate but equal" schools are impossible. They seek admission of Negro pupils and students into "white" public schools and colleges on the basis that only in the "white" school can the Negro get a good education. Negroes have been encouraged in their efforts by the President's Report on Civil Rights.

5. The radio and magazine advertising campaigns by the Advertising Council publicizing the plight and problems of schools—an event which symbolizes the support businessmen give to public education.

Nearly every radio station has broadcast at one time or another facts and information on schools; and the major national magazines are carrying ads, paid for by businessmen, seeking to raise the prestige of teachers. Businessmen have also come to the aid of schools through local chambers of commerce in all parts of the country. Business spokesman for education, Thomas C. Boushall, U. S. Chamber of Commerce official, accepted chairmanship of the Citizens Federal Committee on Education which, together with the U. S. Office of Education, co-sponsors the Advertising Council campaign.

6. Creation of a United States Commission to reorganize the high-school curriculum because "most of the secondary-school courses are obsolete and do not serve the needs of present-day pupils."

Official name of the group is National Commission on Life Adjustment Education For Youth. It plans to incorporate into the high-school courses down-to-earth programs on home and family life, job hunting, budgeting, use of leisure, citizenship and work experience.

7. Ratification of the World Organization for the Teaching Profession—an event which sym-

bolizes the pulling together of classroom teachers for world peace.

The organized teachers in the United States also stepped up their program of aid to impoverished teachers overseas through the Overseas Teacher-Relief Fund.

8. Launching of the Foreign Exchange Scholarships authorized by the Fulbright Act—the first large-scale student exchange program in the history of the country.

Educators also supported the State Department's plan to make permanent and expand America's foreign education and information program as sponsored in the Mundt Bill.

9. Reorganization of the Chicago Board of Education and replacement of its former superintendent by Herold C. Hunt—reflecting the ability of educators to correct political abuses in education.

The investigation of Chicago schools by the National Education Association and its ousting of the former superintendent of schools from NEA membership contributed to the changes made in the Chicago public school system. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools forced the issue by threatening to remove Chicago high schools from the accredited lists.

10. Absorption of 2,338,226 students into colleges and universities.

This is 1 million more students than the colleges enrolled in their peak pre-war years and the largest flood of college students in the history of any nation.

Pan American Day

April 14 has been designated as Pan American Day for 1948. To assist groups planning to observe Pan American Day, the Pan American Union has prepared program material for free distribution in English, Spanish, or Portuguese. The limited supply makes it possible to send materials only to teachers. Write to the Pan American Union, Department of Information, Washington 6, D.C., for a list of available material.

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school or organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington. Contributors to this issue: J. W. Baldwin, Edwin M. Barton, Nelda Davis, Eleanor Florance, Howard L. Jones, John W. Owen, Erma Plaehn.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Ralph Adams Brown

Intercultural Education

The American Jewish Committee, 386 Fourth Avenue, New York 16, has a large variety of excellent material for use in intercultural education. Among the recently released items are the following reprints. Copies of any of them will be sent free to interested teachers:

Pearl S. Buck, "Do You Want Your Child to Be Tolerant?"
Walter R. Hart, "Anti-Semitism in New York Medical Schools."

Danny Kaye, "This Is No Double-Talk."

David Lilienthal, "Credo of An American: A Statement by David E. Lilienthal Before the Congressional Committee on Atomic Energy."

Carey McWilliams, "Does Social Discrimination Really Matter? Exclusiveness in a Democracy."

Gregory Peck, "My Most Interesting Experience."

Mason Rutledge, "Interfaith Teamwork."

Nat Schachner, "No Place Like Home."

——, "Southern Paul Revere."

——, "That Others Might Live."

Walter Winchell, "Things More Americans Should Know About New York."

The American Jewish Committee also has a new pamphlet titled *Youth United For a Better Home Town* (20 cents). This 20-page pamphlet describes ways of organizing a Youth Council, and outlines some of the constructive work such an organization can perform.

This organization attempts to serve as a clearing house for materials of various publishers. It has working arrangements with several of them through which it can offer books in the field of inter-faith and inter-racial relations at generous discounts from the list price. This department carried an annotation of such books in one of last year's issues, and the American Jewish Committee reports that the response from readers of *Social Education* was very gratifying. Since that time the following new volumes have been added to their list. The prices quoted are the publisher's list prices—readers of *Social Education* can obtain the books at a discount by ordering them from the American Jewish Committee:

Intercultural Attitudes in the Making: Parents, Youth Leaders, and Teachers at Work, edited by William Heard Kilpatrick and William Van Til. New York: Harper, \$3.00. This volume is the Ninth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society. It is divided into three parts: Working with young children; Working with young adolescents; and Working with youth. The chapter head-

ings give an idea of the scope of the volume: basic principles in intercultural education; parents; the primary teachers; adult-sponsored youth groups; the junior high school teacher; gangs; the high school teacher; the school as a whole; and a conclusion.

This volume is noteworthy for several reasons. It is drawn from the working experience of teachers and social workers—a fact that should point to its practical attitude and approach. Furthermore, the volume has been designed "specifically to meet the day-to-day needs of other teachers, principals and school superintendents in dealing with problems of racial and religious prejudice and their wide ramifications." The volume combines the responsibilities of the school with those of the family and community, and shows the existence of relationships at every level of development.

Father and the Angels, by William Manners. New York: Dutton, \$2.75. Mr. Manners is a novelist and short story writer. In this volume he writes delightfully of his boyhood years as the son of a Jewish rabbi. It is an interesting story, one that will appeal to many young people of high school age. The implications for increased tolerance and understanding are important.

All About Us, by Eva Knox Evans. New York: Capitol Publishing Co., \$2.00. This is a book for young children, say from seven or eight to ten. It tells the story of the peoples of the earth and explains why we are not all the same when it comes to language, skin color, and customs. The facts are scientific and accurate, but the language is simple and the style is entertaining. Teachers in the lower elementary grades will find this of real value in their efforts to develop attitudes of understanding for those who are "different."

Public Affairs Pamphlets

The Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 22 East 38th Street, New York 16, has recently added three titles to its list of Public Affairs Pamphlets. Teachers should remember that while the increase in production costs has forced this non-profit organization to increase the price of the pamphlets to 20 cents, there are generous quantity discounts, especially designed for schools and libraries.

Pamphlet number 134 is Maxwell S. Stewart's *Buying Your Own Life Insurance*. This pamphlet may have less value to high school students than some other titles in the series, but in terms of importance for adult years it has a high rating. Young veterans will profit, especially, from reading the pages on National Service Life Insurance.

Pamphlet number 135 is George Thorman's *Broken Homes*. Mr. Thorman points out that divorce is not basically a legal problem, and that

therefore any attempt to solve it by passing new laws has little chance for success. Nor does the fact that divorce is breaking up marriages three times as rapidly as it did a half-century ago necessarily mean that there are more unhappy marriages, according to this author. "It may simply mean," he points out, "that more people who are unhappily married seek divorce than before because they find less reason to stay married." "Many marriages which were once held together by the external pressure of economic necessity or of social disapproval will fall apart once these props are removed," Mr. Thorman points out. "A modern marriage must be held together from within rather than from without." To understand the complicated institution of marriage in our modern world, Mr. Thorman suggests that we need to use "the combined knowledge of all sorts of experts—sociologists who can explore the social forces which affect family life; doctors, psychiatrists, and psychologists who can discover the emotional, mental, and physical factors which make or break marriages; educators, ministers, counselors, and social workers who can apply their findings and make their knowledge available to those who need it."

Pamphlet number 38, *Facing the Facts About Cancer*, has also been recently released. The author, Dallas Johnson, points out that although cancer is one of the most curable of all major causes of death if detected early, we must look to research for a more effective method of diagnosis and cure. The pamphlet stresses for the average reader the importance of regular examinations and emphasizes the value of cancer detection centers which specialize in the examination of well persons. And it also provides him with the latest bulletins from the scientific battlefield. "Science knows," Mrs. Johnson points out, "that if an answer to cancer is found, it will be by assembling the findings of many scientists. . . . It will take the joint efforts of chemists and physicists, biologists and endocrinologists, pathologists and cytologists—to name just a few involved in the basic research of cancer."

Geography

Volume one, number one of the *Teachers Service Bulletin in Geography* has been received. This bulletin is to be issued four times yearly by the Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue, New York. It will be sent free to any elementary school teacher who requests it.

Armed Forces Talk

This series of five cent discussion guides, prepared by the Troop Information Branch, Troop Information and Education Division, Special Staff, United States Army, and for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, has been frequently mentioned in this department. New issues currently available are:

- #201—World Hunger and World Peace
- #202—Push-Button Warfare
- #203—What is the Future of the British Empire?
- #204—American Frontiers—Puerto Rico
- #205—Korea—Nation Divided

Church and State in America

The November 15, 1947, issue of *Social Action* (Liston Pope, Editor, The Council for Social Action of the Congregational Christian Churches, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York 10. \$1.50 per year; 15 cents per copy, with quantity discounts) is devoted to the topic of the *Church and State in America*. This 35-page pamphlet provides an excellent survey of a controversial issue. Dean Erwin N. Griswold of the Harvard Law School has written a two-page introduction titled "Church and State in America." Dean Weigle of the Yale Divinity School discusses "The American Tradition of Religious Freedom." Professor F. Ernest Johnson of Columbia's Teachers College (he is also Director of the Department of Research and Education of the Federal Council of Churches) writes on "Some Crucial Contemporary Issues." The final section is Tom Keehn's "Public Funds for Non-Public Schools?" There is also an excellent list of books and pamphlets for those who wish to read further on this topic.

Unesco in Nebraska

UNESCO and Nebraska Secondary Schools Youth, edited by Royce H. Knapp (Extension Division, University of Nebraska, Lincoln 8. 50 cents) is a pamphlet that will prove suggestive for all social studies teachers, regardless of their location. Its six chapters are: UNESCO, Its organization, program and purpose; UNESCO in the secondary school classroom; UNESCO in the extra-classroom life of the school; the charter of UNESCO; and Resources and teaching aids. The last chapter, a six and a half page bibliography, is unusually valuable. It is divided into books, pamphlets, magazines, study kits, magazine articles, sources of information, bibliographies, audio-

visual materials, charts and posters, and motion pictures.

The United Nations

The Department of Public Information, United Nations, Lake Success, New York, has just issued a 50-page pamphlet titled *Guide to the United Nations Charter* (50 cents). The subject matter is divided into two parts: steps to the charter and the charter explained. The first section provides a step-by-step explanation of the origins of the United Nations. The second takes each aspect or section of the United Nations and explains it in detail. The illustrations—photographs, charts, and graphs—are excellent. This is certainly a pamphlet that no social studies teacher should ignore.

Children and Understanding

"Early Childhood Aims Its Views," by Helen G. Trager and Marian Radke, is available in reprint form for the small price of eight cents (Department 5, Bureau for Intercultural Education, 1697 Broadway, New York 19). The article originally appeared in the October, 1947, issue of *Educational Leadership*. It gives accounts of conversations and actions of children, accounts which are taken from actual classroom anecdotal records. The conclusions drawn from these accounts should be read by all people interested in this problem. It represents the first published article to come from the studies of the Philadelphia Early Childhood Project which is being conducted through the cooperation of the Philadelphia public schools, the Bureau for Intercultural Education, the Research Center for Group Dynamics of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and the Philadelphia Fellowship Commission. Social studies teachers will wish to keep informed regarding the progress of this study.

Improving Group Relationships

Building Friendly Relations, by Robert S. Gilchrist, Lotha Kahn, and Robert Haas (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, \$1.00) is number four in the *Adventures in Education Series*. This was written by a committee of the faculty

of the University School of Ohio State University to show some of the things that this school has done to promote better relations among religious, racial, and national groups. Fifteen different group experiences and projects are described, experiences and projects in which the participating pupils ranged from the first to the twelfth grade. Photographs of several of the projects are included. Edgar Dale's short introductory chapter is titled "The Choice Before Us."

Elementary Education

Several recent publications of the Division of Elementary Education, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, are of possible interest to our readers:

Curriculum Adjustments for Gifted Children (Bulletin 1946, No. 1. 20 cents) discusses such questions as What is the school's responsibility for gifted children? How can they be identified? How are schools and classes being organized to meet their needs? How can the curriculum be adjusted? What are some of the units of experience that have been developed particularly for them? It describes illustrative experiences reported by specific school systems in the fields of science, literature, citizenship, and intercultural education, which could be easily applied elsewhere.

How To Build a Unit of Work (Bulletin 1946, No. 5. 15 cents) shows the teacher that units are of different types, that they originate in different ways, and that they vary in terms of the maturity of the group of children with whom they are used. It shows how to choose a unit that fits the needs and interests of a group of children, and at the same time meets certain courses-of-study requirements.

Open Doors to Children (Extended School Services, 1947. 15 cents) discusses the experiences children may have in a school-age center, the kind of living and learning which goes on under trained leadership, and the values contributed by such a program to home and community life.

Schools for Children Under Six (Bulletin 1947, No. 5. 20 cents) is a report of the status and need for nursery schools and kindergartens. It offers information for school administrators, teachers, and community groups in providing these school services as a part of primary education.

Many teachers and their boys and girls in rural schools are interested in better country living. They take part in community projects. *Schools Count in Country Life* (Bulletin 1947, No. 8. 20 cents) shows how such activities are started. It tells what some schools do to improve the everyday life of boys and girls. It has a reading list and pictures of teachers and children at work.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Motion Picture News

A free list of motion pictures available from railroads may be obtained from the Association of American Railroads, Transportation Bldg., Washington, D.C.

The Institute of Life Insurance, 60 East 42nd Street, New York 17, will send teachers a list of teaching materials including booklets, charts, and motion pictures dealing with life insurance.

A list of sound films on safety may be had from the National Safety Council, Inc., 20 N. Wacker Drive, Chicago 6.

"Fire Prevention Motion Picture Films" is the title of a list obtainable from the Bureau of Communications Research, Inc., 12 East 44th Street, New York 17.

The 1948 edition of *1000 and One, the Blue Book of Non-Theatrical Films* is now off the press and is available at a cost of \$1.00 from Educational Screen, 64 East Lake Street, Chicago 1. This guide tells where to obtain over 6500 films, classified under 127 subject-headings.

Indonesia Calling, an Australian-made film directed by Joris Ivens, famous Dutch director, has been designated "film of the month" by *People*, a publication of the East and West Association. The reviewer in *People* said of it, "This is an unusual film which tells the story of the fight for Indonesian independence as it was waged last year by a group of Indonesian seamen living in Australia. . . . A completely Pacific orientation, which will help Americans to enlarge their understanding of the rest of the world." This film runs for 20 minutes and is available in 16 mm. sound film for rental at \$5.00 from Brandon Films, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York 19.

Typical of the times is Coronet Instructional Films' announcement that, effective January 1, 1948, color films will rise in price from \$75 per reel to \$90. Black and white films will remain at \$45 per reel.

The only animated cartoon to be featured in a program on "Peoples and Lands of the World" at the Films of the World festival in Chicago last October was *Brotherhood of Man*. This color film, based on the widely circulated pamphlet, "Races of Mankind," has had an enthusiastic re-

ception among non-theatrical film folk. Rental data on this film may be obtained from Brandon Films, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York 19.

A Bibliography on Audio-Visual Instructional Materials for Teachers in the Elementary School, by Constance Weinman, costs 50 cents at the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York 27.

A catalog of motion picture films about American industry may be had free from the Bureau of Mines Experimental Station, 4800 Forbes St., Pittsburgh 13.

Recent 16-mm. Films

Brandon Films, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York 19.

Food, Secret of the Peace. 17 minutes, sound; rental: \$2.25. Shows the conditions of extreme distress in Europe and tells what has happened to the normal sources of food for this area. Drives home the fact that only by helping to feed the nations of Europe can their liberation be fully won.

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Hausa Village. 22 minutes, sound; small service fee. Life and customs in a northern Nigerian village. The film includes preparation for a wedding ceremony and shows the actual building of a house for the bridal couple.

Bureau of Mines, Graphic Services Section, 4800 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh 13.

Sulphur. 20 minutes, sound, color; free. Production operations and utilization of sulphur.

A Story of Texas and Its Natural Resources. 10 minutes, sound; free. A revised one-reel version of an outstanding film. Devoted largely to the mineral industries of Texas.

Coronet Instructional Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1.

Powers of Congress. 10 minutes, sound, color; sale: \$90. The place of Congress in our democratic government is explained and defined in a dream sequence in which a citizen is confronted with a world in which Congress has been suspended and federal authority dissolved.

Curtis Publishing Co., Motion Picture and Speakers Bureau, Independence Square, Philadelphia 6.

Magazine Magic. 40 minutes, color; free. A complete film presentation of the making of a modern magazine. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago 6.

Building a House. 11 minutes, sound; sale: \$45. Planning and constructing a home. Explains tools, materials, and skills of the workmen. Suited for use in primary grades.

Forestry Relations Dept., Tennessee Valley Authority, Norris, Tennessee.

Timber Growing Today. 15 minutes, sound, color; loan.

Relation of timber to the over-all conservation problem. Hollywood Film Enterprises, Inc., Educational Division, 6060 Sunset Blvd., Hollywood 28, California.

The Incas. 15 minutes, sound, color; rental: apply. Tells how the Incas lived before the arrival of the Spanish conquerors.

The March of Time, 369 Lexington Ave., New York 17.

Teachers' Crisis. 17 minutes, sound; lease: \$25, one year. Visits to American classrooms and school board meetings reveal discontented and ill-qualified teachers on the one hand and a disinterested community attitude on the other. Considers the steps which national organizations such as the National Education Association are making toward a sound and lasting solution.

Remington Rand, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York 10.

American Way of Property Ownership. 20 minutes, sound, color; free. Story of the development of a banking firm's record-keeping.

Simmel-Meservey, 9538 Brighton Way, Beverly Hills, Calif.

Sailplane. 11 minutes, sound, color; sale: \$90. The operation of gliders. May be of some value in secondary school units on the air age.

Glacier Park Studies. 22 minutes, color; sale: apply. A field trip on the history, geology and outstanding life forms of the Park.

Sponuth, H. A., Film Studios of Chicago, 135 S. La Salle, Chicago 3.

Woman Speaks. A series of 10-minute reels portraying woman's amazing contributions in arts, crafts, business, government, and education.

United World Films, Inc., 445 Park Ave., New York 22.

Longitude and Latitude. 11 minutes, sound; rental: apply. Produced in England by Gaumont-British, this picture was voted the best educational film of the year at the Brussels World Film Festival.

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st Street, New York 17.

Modern Guide to Health. 10 minutes, sound; sale: \$38.50. Deals with such health problems as posture, care and selection of clothing, and importance of rest and sleep.

Panama: Crossroads of the Western World. 10 minutes, sound, color; sale: \$90. Panama as a country where passage, transfer, and mixture permeate the cultural and economic life.

Natural Resources of the Pacific Coast. 10 minutes, sound, color; sale: \$90. The wealth of the lumbering, fishing, farming, and mineral industries is shown.

Film Strips

Audio-Visual Enterprises, 4405 Springdale Drive, Los Angeles 43, Calif.

The Oil Tanker. 55 frames, black and white; sale: \$3.00. How the oil tanker serves in the collection and distribution of oil. Important parts of the ship, and key crew members are shown.

Contempo Productions, 6345 Primrose Ave., Hollywood 28, Calif.

Story of World War II. 53 episodes, black and white; sale: \$115. The complete story of World War II in 53 filmstrips, each hand drawn and based on careful research.

Current History Films, 77 Fifth Ave., New York 3.

America's Housing Crises. 115 frames, black and white; sale: \$5.00. Tells why we have a housing crisis, whom it hits, and what they need. Shows how to get housing. Explains scope of the crisis and plans to remedy it.

Medical Insurance, Pathway to Health. 83 frames, black and white; sale: \$2.60. Dramatizes the way in which national health insurance would safeguard Americans.

Frank McAllister, Georgia Workers Education Service, 353 Courtland St., N.E., Atlanta, Ga.

Education for Living. 54 frames, black and white; sale: \$1.50. A filmstrip on worker education produced with cooperation of Atlanta Department of Education.

Pictures of Foreign Lands

The Information Division of the French Embassy (501 Madison Ave., New York 22) offers the following facilities to American teachers: (1) A library of official publications of the French government, daily newspapers, monthly publications; (2) a mimeographed bulletin, "News From France"; (3) a photographic service; (4) a limited number of pamphlets, brochures, posters and other illustrative material.

A series of nine picture cards depicting the people of India has just been published by AMA Limited, Canada Building, Hornby Road, Fort, Bombay, India. These cards portray various types of people, their occupations, and details such as costume, jewelry, head-dresses, foot-wear, etc. Further information concerning this series may be obtained by writing to the above address.

Stereoscopic Pictures on Educational Subjects

Tru-Vue announces a new model stereoscopic viewer for viewing three-dimensional pictures, for showing in which there are now available in the Tru-Vue Film Library 350 different subjects on travel, cultural, and informational subjects. This device, styled by Gifford Mast of Mast Development Company, Davenport, Iowa, is molded in brown and old ivory plastic. It is based on the principle of the old-time "parlor" stereoscope. The film is advanced through the viewer by a pistol-trigger arrangement, and 14 different pictures are shown in a series on a 32-inch, 35-mm. filmstrip. The new model viewer is on sale by photographic dealer and department stores at \$2.00 each. For details write to Tru-Vue, Rock Island 3, Illinois.

The Effects of Comic Books

The December, 1947, issue of *The Nation's Schools* carries a news item concerning a survey

of the effects of comic books upon the reading habits of children. Conducted by graduate students at Stanford University, this study concluded that there is no evidence to indicate that comic books undermine children's morals, spoil their taste for good literature, or contribute to juvenile delinquency. As a matter of fact, the surveyors concluded that the use of the comic book format in the presentation of reading matter to poor readers might be a helpful technic.

Radio Notes

In a full-page advertisement in the November, 1947, *Atlantic* magazine, the American Broadcasting Company proclaimed, "Some of Our Best Friends Are Adults." To prove it ABC pointed with pride to its Tuesday evenings of adult programs. Listed were: 8:00 P.M.—"Youth Asks the Government," in which a panel of high school students ask direct, searching questions of high government officials; 8:15 P.M.—"The Christian Science Monitor Views the News," commentary on foreign events by Erwin Canham; 8:30 P.M.—"America's Town Meeting of the Air," the famous program in which speakers present *both sides* of vital issues; 10:30 P.M.—"Labor USA and the NAM," one of radio's most challenging half hours in which both labor and management present their views.

Recordings

Bing Crosby and other famous actors may be future teachers of America's school children, says *Business Week*.

Under a deal made recently, Decca Records will release and American Book will distribute Decca albums to schools, colleges, and universities. "Although it isn't expected that records will take the place of textbooks, big names will be used to enliven lessons in literature." Decca has already turned out Bing Crosby in "The Man Without a Country" and Ginger Rogers in "Alice in Wonderland," and "feels Walter Huston narrating the Rip Van Winkle legend puts more feeling into the performance than the average school teacher."

Decca plans to release 88 albums from present stocks for distribution to schools, and new albums will be added from time to time. In anticipation, the company lately has been cutting a lot of new records and has in mind a hedge against the December 31 ban James C. Petrillo has placed on new recordings.

New Equipment

Two new record players for school use are now on the market. Zenith Radio Corporation (6001 West Dickens Ave., Chicago 39) features a Cobra Tone Arm record player which provides fine reproduction with slight wear on records. This unit has hitherto been used only in record-store listening booths, but is now made available to schools. The second record player is the new Victrola classroom phonograph, senior model. A feature of this machine is the 12-inch speaker and large amplifier. Information concerning this machine may be obtained from Radio Corporation of America, RCA Victor Division, Camden, N.J.

A lightweight, portable wire recorder that incorporates for the first time a simple "plug-in" loading cartridge, eliminating the complicated handling of wire, has been announced by RCA (see address above). This recorder is excellent for recording historic events, discussion programs, and important radio programs.

The Revere Camera Co. (320 East 21st Street, Chicago) announces its new 16-mm. motion picture projector. Weighing only 28 pounds, this projector has 750-watt brilliancy, a fast 2-inch F.1.6 coated lens, and operates on AC or DC current.

Write to Bausch and Lomb Optical Co. (889 St. Paul Street, Rochester 2, N.Y.) for a copy of catalog E-11 which carries a detailed description of the model LRM Balopticas, a projector for opaque materials as well as standard $3\frac{1}{4} \times 4$ inch slides. This projector has a built-in blower cooling system for the protection of the projected materials.

Secrets of Better Slide and Stripfilm Projection is a little booklet which will be mailed from Viewlex Inc., 35-01 Queens Blvd., Long Island City, N.Y. The Viewlex projector model AP-2C is a combination 2 x 2 inch slide and 35-mm. film-strip machine which is extremely easy to thread.

A new dual-speed record player which reproduces transcriptions up to and including 16 inches recorded at $33\frac{1}{3}$ revolutions per minute and standard 10- and 12-inch discs at 78 r.p.m. is announced by the Victor Animatograph Corporation, Davenport, Iowa. Called the Sonomaster, this record player is especially designed for the multiple use of educational institutions.

The De Vry "Bantam" is another entry in the field of lightweight 16-mm. projectors. Priced at \$325, this "theater in a suitcase" weighs less than 31 pounds. For further information write to De

Vry Corporation, 1111 Armitage Avenue, Chicago 14.

Helpful Articles

- Barleben, Karl A., "Getting the Most Out of Your Phonograph Records," *Audio-Visual Guide*, XIV: 7-10, November, 1947. An article devoted to the mechanics of record care.
- Daley, Grace M., Brugger, H. E., and Anderson, K. E., "America: An Experiment." *Journal of Educational Research*, XLI: 222-229, November, 1947. A program for making America more meaningful through an understanding of her history, literature, art, music, humor, and fantasy. The motion picture used to arouse interest and curiosity and to emotionalize the content of the course.
- Dugan, John E., "Let's Utilize United Nations," *Educational Screen*, XXVI: 557-558, December, 1947. Discusses sources of audio-visual materials for teaching about the United Nations.
- Edwards, J. H., "Teaching the Geography of Australia Through Maps," *The Journal of Geography*, XLVI: 318-320, November, 1947. An experiment with a sixth grade class in developing abilities to read various kinds of maps. Furnishes a good description of the use of maps in studying resources.
- Goodman, David J., "Filmstrips for Freedom," *Educational Screen*, XXVI: 497, 552, November, 1947. A description of "Our American Heritage" series of filmstrips distributed by *Reader's Digest*.
- Knapper, Max, "Don't Chain the Movies," *Forum*, CVIII: 265-269, November, 1947. Discusses the problem of film censorship and suggests the substitution of audience control for any board of censors. State boards would decide what films could be shown to juveniles.
- Lewin, William, "Films Make Good Teachers," *Young America Teacher*, III: 14-17, December, 1947. A summary of trends in the use of films in our schools.
- Merideth, Dorothy, "Some Suggested Uses for Classroom Films," *The School Review*, LV: 587-593, December, 1947. Among the uses outlined are: identifying major points of information, analyzing cause-effect relationships, combating the habit of stereotyped thinking, and identifying and analyzing propaganda devices.
- Russell, Margaret B., "Children Make Recordings," *NEA Journal*, XXXVI: 635, December, 1947. An account of the many valuable learnings which grew out of making Valentine Day voice recordings as presents for parents.
- Schon, Hubert, "Movies—A Vehicle for Inter-Group Education," *Education*, LXVIII: 159-161, November, 1947. Discusses the technics involved in conducting movie forums.
- Sorenson, Clarence W., "Filmstrips in a Geography Program," *Educational Screen*, XXVI: 545, December, 1947. Describes a series of filmstrips to accompany a textbook series on geography.
- Spiegler, Charles G., "I Fight for Peace with Films," *See and Hear*, III: 14-15, 32, December, 1947. The use of five films in a unit designed "to put the skids under the theory that 'future wars are not only possible but probable.'"
- Strauss, L. Harry, "Motion Pictures in Adult Education," *The Nation's Schools*, XL: 52-54, December, 1947. Especially valuable because of the list of film sources which is included.
- Tyler, Tracy F., "Universities Serve the Schools Through Radio," *Higher Education*, IV: 85-89, December 15, 1947. A description of the Wisconsin School of the Air and similar services rendered by Ohio State, Minnesota, and Purdue Universities.
- "World History Films—Better Understanding of the Past," *Education*, LXVIII: 188-189, November, 1947. A description of a project to edit feature length films for use in the classroom.

"Another fundamental aim of our democracy is to provide an adequate education for every person.

"Our educational systems face a financial crisis. It is deplorable that in a nation as rich as ours there are millions of children who do not have adequate schoolhouses or enough teachers for a good elementary or secondary education. If there are educational inadequacies in any state the whole nation suffers. The Federal Government has a responsibility for providing financial aid to meet this crisis.

"In addition, we must make a possible greater equality of opportunity to all our citizens for an education. Only by so doing can we insure that our citizens will be capable of understanding and sharing the responsibilities of democracy.

"The government's programs for health, education, and security are of such great importance to our democracy that we should now establish an executive department for their administration." President Truman. The State-of-the-Union message, January 8, 1948.

Book Reviews

CONTEMPORARY PROBLEMS HERE AND ABROAD. By Edith West, Dorothy Merideth, and Edgar B. Wesley. Boston: D. C. Heath, 1947. Pp. 598. \$2.28.

Through the years the problems course, perhaps more than any other course in the social studies, has been particularly responsive to new content and methods of teaching. In spite of continuing changes, however, its emphasis until recently has been upon the American scene—meaning the United States.

World-wide depression, the threat of war, and war itself have slowly taught us that world problems are now American problems. If we are to meet individual and social needs, therefore, a new emphasis must be placed upon world problems. For some individual topics within this area, pamphlet materials and books, as well as units designed specifically for the schools, have been published. But the field is wide open for textbook authors.

Contemporary Problems Here and Abroad is the pioneer textbook in this field. The authors—Edith West, Dorothy Merideth, and Edgar B. Wesley—state in their preface that they have endeavored to provide a textbook of ten units that should be more acceptable and less expensive, even if only five of the units are actually used, than an equivalent number of pamphlets. They have tried to select units that are timely and appropriate, yet not ephemeral. Each unit is independent of the others, thus making it possible for appropriate units to be used with courses in world or American history. The book can also be utilized with complete flexibility as a basic text for the study of world problems.

The first two units are concerned with "The Air Age" and "World Resources," the former including an excellent section on maps and projections. The next four units deal with "Latin America and the Future," "The British Empire in Transition," "The USSR and the U.S.A.," and "The Far East and the Western World." The final four units take up the problems of "Planning for Prosperity," "World Government," "Schools for the Future," and "The Civil and the Military: Keeping Civil Authority Supreme." Although there is no specific unit on atomic energy, there are nearly a dozen references to it listed in the index.

Each unit begins with an outline of the main topics, under each of which is listed the questions or subtopics to be developed. This brief outline is followed by an introduction that endeavors to stimulate interest and make abundantly clear why the unit is of vital and immediate significance. Although the vocabulary is suitable for secondary-school students, the style of writing and organization are in some places a little too academic, with the result that interest is not uniformly maintained. On the other hand, theoretical concepts and abstractions are minimized.

The number of units is limited, thus making it impossible to provide the variety of material required for developing basic understandings. "The Air Age," for example, is supported by a study of maps and projections; the unit on "The USSR and the U.S.A." includes eighteen pages of historical background material; and the unit on "World Government" provides an analysis of the causes and cost of war, the alternatives to world organization for peace, and the history of international cooperation, as well as a discussion of the United Nations and its prospects.

That the authors are willing to express a definite point of view is readily apparent. "Isolation Is Impossible in an Air Age" is one subtopic (p. 8). "Peace and co-operation between the two nations (U.S. and USSR) is necessary for the prosperity and progress of the world" (p. 280). Or again, ". . . some combination of plans to avoid depression would seem to be necessary" (p. 410). "What is needed is joint planning by business, labor, consumers, and government" (p. 380). Such straightforward statements from textbook authors are refreshing and far too rare. On the other hand, differing points of view receive their full share of attention, and when future courses of action are discussed various alternatives are fairly presented. Material of this kind can easily be utilized by the instructor to stimulate critical thinking.

If this text does not gain wide popularity, it may well be attributable to the inadequacies of its visual aids. There is not a single actual photograph in the entire book, nor is there any touch of color except on the outside cover. Cost of publication may be decreased; so is attractiveness. There are four cartoons and one black and white drawing. Sixty-eight "illustrations" are listed, con-



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sisting primarily of pictographs and maps, some of which occupy only one-quarter of a page or less. Twenty-two of these are in the first twenty-five pages, leaving in the rest of the book an average of one for each twelve pages. And in the unit on the air age, there are twenty-five pages without a single "illustration" to break the monotony of the printed word—while the numerous headings, though occasionally making use of italics, are never printed in boldface type.

Many of the graphs have been taken from the pamphlets of the Public Affairs Committee and the Foreign Policy Association. Unfortunately, however, in at least two cases the transfer of two well-constructed pictographs was not carefully made. One such graph (p. 85) does not reproduce the original legend and is practically meaningless. Another (p. 89) reproduces from the original the percentages of a "world score" in "mineral wealth." Although nearly a page of the original pamphlet was devoted to an explanation of the meaning of the pictograph, the textbook we are reviewing contains no definition or explanation of the key terms, "world score" and "mineral wealth," and the meaning of the graph is thus obscured.

Some graphs and tables deal with population

figures, but all too frequently dates are not included with the figures. The United States Empire, exclusive of the Philippines, for example, is given a population figure of 134 million, both in a graph and in the text (pp. 179-80). This figure was correct for 1940, and should be so indicated, inasmuch as reliable estimates for 1946 place the population of the United States alone at about 140 million. If we expect precision from our students in the use of statistics and in the construction and interpretation of graphs, we should hope to find a similar precision in the textbooks they use.

The maps are numerous, are not overcrowded, and are appropriately placed. The organizational charts of the United Nations, of the government and Communist Party in the USSR, and of the International Labor Organization are well done, though at least two of them have been published earlier in other pamphlets; and the ILO chart (p. 442) gives the impression that its headquarters has always been at Montreal, an impression not corrected by the text.

At the end of each unit, books and pamphlets are suggested for further reading, including fiction, biography, and adventure when appropriate. No annotations are made, except for the use of stars and daggers, to indicate the easier or more difficult titles. Publishers are listed but dates of publication are omitted, and for only a few of the pamphlets are publishers' addresses indicated. Similarly, lists of films accompany each unit, with annotations restricted to stating the number of reels or length of the film, whether it is sound or silent, and the name of its producer or distributor—without the address or any indication of whether the film may be borrowed or rented, or must be purchased. The usual writing, reporting, map-drawing, and round-table activities are also suggested.

The need for this type of textbook is real, and the trend it represents toward the study of world, instead of narrowly American, problems should be encouraged. The units selected for *Contemporary Problems Here and Abroad* are, as the authors believe, timely but not ephemeral. The information presented is placed in proper perspective, is concrete, and does not include too much abstract or theoretical material. Since this volume contains much pertinent and useful material not inexpensively or readily available elsewhere, several copies added to any high school or classroom library would represent a sound investment. But as a basal text around which a course might be built, the book is apt to be successful

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primarily with the more academic type of student, not because of its vocabulary and concepts, but because of its conventional format, and its failure to provide the number of interesting and attractive visual aids our high-school students have come to expect in their textbooks.

MANSON VAN B. JENNINGS

Teachers College, Columbia University

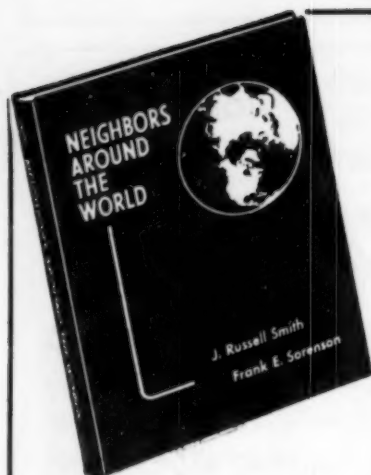
CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL PROBLEMS. By Harold A. Phelps. Rev. ed. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1947. Pp. xiv, 845. \$4.00.

This is the third edition of a textbook which first appeared in 1932 and was revised in 1938. The pattern of organization is retained in the new edition and the same social problems are selected for discussion as those found in the 1938 edition. The author's conscientious adherence to the "contemporary" nature of his book obligated him to bring the material up to date from reports of recent research and the latest available statistical materials.

An introductory chapter on the theory and content of social problems is followed by four parts, each prefaced by a brief explanatory note.

Economic, physical and mental, and cultural problems constitute respectively the subject matter of Parts I, II, and III. Economic problems selected for Part I are poverty, unemployment, occupational hazards, and depressions. In Part II, physical illness, physical defectiveness, the mental diseases, mental deficiency, and population problems are examined. Cultural problems, the subject matter of Part III, include standards of living, insecurities of the aged, transients, broken families, crime and juvenile delinquency.

Some of the topics, like broken families and crime, are treated much more lengthily than others like depressions and physical defectiveness. The reasons for this are not explicit. Perhaps we may assume that interest and immediacy are involved. At least one of the topics, population problems, seems to deserve more attention than that given to it. Glaringly conspicuous by its absence is the topic of race problems. Certainly the author's rationale that "many major problems . . . are omitted, although they may be significant obstacles to human welfare, because they have not been, or cannot be, stated as scientific problems or subjected to the methods now available to social investigation" applies no more validly to



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race problems than to some of the problems he has selected for consideration.

Part IV, which is entitled "An Approach to Social Planning," is in large part an expanded presentation of the theoretical ideas and classificatory devices discussed concisely in the introductory chapter.

The book's prefatory remarks satisfactorily establish an integrative perspective. "Each problem is in reality a cluster of problems. Thus, from this point of view, the problem of poverty is classified as economic, but is redefined as a mixture of physical, mental, and cultural, as well as economic disabilities." It is consistent to expect that solutions to social problems will be interrelated also. Unfortunately, the promise of this clear and adequate point of departure is not fulfilled in the subsequent theoretical portions of the book. Both the introductory chapter on "Interests, Values, and Problems" and the concluding Part IV are grimly literal expressions of the author's main purpose that "social problems must be redefined." Redefinition follows definition; reclassification pursues classification. The over-all effect defeats the author's stated purpose.

If one can avoid the aforementioned theoretical sections of the book, he will find it useful. Each social problem is discussed clearly. The chapters

are nicely organized and the source materials are up to date and pertinent.

MILTON L. BARRON

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EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY. By Frances J. Brown. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947. Pp. xiv, 626. \$4.00.

This book, prepared by a member of the staff of the American Council on Education, should make a notable contribution to its field. Derived from an extended teaching experience in a university which carried the torch for educational sociology, it provides an excellent handbook for many instructors who are looking for a guide to the content of educational sociology.

However, the book reveals that the content of educational sociology continues to be derived from the subjective judgment of men who teach these courses. This reviewer wishes it might be otherwise and that the author might have taken some bold steps toward the achievement of a defensible content for college courses bearing the title of this book. This is especially true because this is one of the few if not the first book on educational sociology published in a decade.

Assuming that the major goal of education is the transmission of the cultural heritage, an assumption that may not be accepted by all educators, we may conclude that too little space (Chapter 4) has been given in this volume not only to the nature of culture but also to its application to the teaching process. Furthermore, in Chapter 11 the discussion of the school in "relation to culture" is limited to a brief treatise on the history of education.

Similarly, if we assume with Finney that "the objectives of education are the institutions of society," we again find deficiencies. One chapter is assigned to the family but, even at the risk of seeming to deteriorate almost into lesson planning, the author could have given more space to a delineation of how the family, with the goal of gaining larger personal adjustment for the pupils, might be incorporated constructively and consistently into the curriculum.

In other chapters are found equally inadequate analyses of the vocations, of health facilities, and of recreation. Also the importance of the state and its government are merely skirted in a discussion of "social attitudes."

As a parallel to a treatment of the cultural heritage and the institutions, other colleagues would insist that the attainment of an intelligent and effective social control is the major goal of education. Although Sumner and his folkways have received many passing nods, the contributions to social control by E. A. Ross, F. E. Lumley, William Albig, and Walter Lippmann, to name only a few, are conspicuously absent. A portion of one chapter, which the author uses for a discussion of social control, is scarcely adequate for the outcomes we might expect.

Also, it can be argued that the scope of educational sociology is consistent with, if it does not actually correspond to, the formulation of the curriculum. Here the author might have expanded his comments (Chapter 13) on the curriculum into a volume. The relationships between social organization and the curriculum are largely the content of educational sociology. Presumptuous as it seems, the sociologist and the social theorist should set the limits for and determine the content of the curriculum.

Despite the seemingly harsh comments which are recorded herein, the reviewer must report that he has not found any book, bearing this or a similar title that meets his tastes and fulfills his dreams.

JOHN A. KINNEMAN

Illinois State Normal University

ADOPTED in Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Alabama, Kentucky, Indiana, Utah; and in many cities, including St. Louis and San Francisco.

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HANDBOOK FOR DISCUSSION LEADERS. By J. Jeffrey Auer and Henry Lee Ewbank. New York: Harper, 1947. Pp. viii, 118. \$1.75.

This compact little volume will be useful primarily to those who are organizing group discussions for the first time, but it should also be of interest to experienced leaders who want a quick refresher as they think through their plans for a new season of forums or lectures. The book is valuable, not because it presents any great amount of new material on the subject, but because it gives, in brief, the basic steps to be taken in planning and carrying out a program of group discussion. The authors offer a distillation of experience and writing; in fact, some of the materials are adapted by Professor Auer and Professor Ewbank from their two earlier books on group discussion, one a college textbook, the other a handbook for the Educational Services branch of the United States Navy. Although it is addressed to adult community leaders, this book might be used profitably by the adviser and student leader in a school debate and forum club.

Chapter I defines seven types of planned group discussions, and indicates how they may be used by private and public groups for exchanging information, developing attitudes, formulating policies, releasing tensions, and indoctrination. The first four of these techniques are of rather general interest; the last is especially useful to groups wishing to promote particular programs or doctrines.

The second chapter presents in some detail the techniques for choosing and phrasing topics suitable for the group involved, selecting the individuals who will participate, and arranging the details of publicizing and holding the meeting. Since this is a practical, down-to-earth treatment that includes many of the common-sense techniques familiar to experienced discussion leaders, it should help the novice to make the most of his opportunities and to avoid unfortunate mistakes.

Equally practical and specific is the chapter devoted to the responsibilities and techniques of the discussion leader. In addition to a general outline of what qualities the leader must have and what part he must and must not play in the discussion, the authors suggest definite procedures that may be used in leading each of the seven types of discussion groups dealt with in this volume. The authors have given, for example, twenty-two typical situations that a discussion leader is likely to meet, with questions he might ask "to handle the impatient cure-all members," or "to draw the timid but informed member into

the discussion," or "to cut off the speaker who is too long winded." Also, there are some sample outlines of typical discussions of the conference, the panel, and the symposium type as they might be worked out in practice.

A short section on evaluation suggests a few results that might be expected, and others that it is unreasonable to expect, from successful group discussion, and briefly indicates a small number of simple techniques for measuring results. Sample shift-of-opinion ballots and rating scales are included.

Three useful aids are an excellent index and two appendices—the first a short list of sources of study materials, with names and addresses of the organizations that publish them and a few typical items; the second, a few annotated references to other books on group-discussion leadership. The very busy citizen, who is usually the person who chooses or is chosen to be a discussion leader and who will perhaps not have the time or the opportunity to refer to these longer volumes, may appreciate the compactness of this *Handbook for Discussion Leaders*. He may wish to recommend it to the members of his advisory council or forum-planning group, whose understanding of the whole process of discussion is as important to the success of a meeting as that of the leader himself.

LAURA M. SHUFELT

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